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**MOTIVATION, ANXIETY AND
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE OF MULTIPLE
LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN THAILAND**

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ABSTRACT

This study explored motivation of Thai students who simultaneously studied English and additional L3s (Chinese, Japanese and Korean) in language specialist majors and in English-medium business majors in a Thai university, using Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 motivational self system and Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational system. Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) and International Posture (IP) are also investigated in order to find the dynamic interplay between these closely linked variables. The study consists of three parts: 1) a quantitative cross-sectional study with students from year 1 to year 4 (N = 356), 2) retrospective interview of 14 students who were studying different languages, and 3) longitudinal case studies of five students over three years.

It sheds light on the topic of motivations of multiple language learners across languages and in different learning environments. The findings show that while the increasing importance of English threatened learners' motivation to study other foreign languages as found in previous research (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2002, 2006; Henry 2010, 2012), the predominance of English also encourages students to study other languages. International posture was found to link to motivation to learn foreign languages other than English, while FLA does not correlate to IP at all. For both language specialist and English-medium business students, their motivation was mainly generated by immediate need and future use of that particular language.

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List of Glossary

AEC	=	The ASEAN Economic Community
AMTB	=	Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
ASEAN	=	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CLI	=	Cross-Linguistic Influence
EFL	=	English as a Foreign Language
FL	=	Foreign Language
FLA	=	Foreign Language Anxiety
FLCA	=	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety
IP	=	International Posture
L1	=	First Language
L2	=	Second Language
L3	=	Third Language
OBEC	=	Office of the Basic Education Commission
NUIC	=	Naresuan University International College
SLA	=	Second Language Acquisition
TL	=	Target Language
WTC	=	Willingness to Communicate

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study examines the motivational self-concept of multiple language learners based on two dominant concepts in the field – Dörnyei's motivational self system (2005, 2009) and Ushioda's person-in-context relational view (2009) and how motivation is related to Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) and international (IP). The major aim of the investigation is to compare L2 and L3 motivations of 356 Thai students who were studying in language major at the faculty of Humanities and business major at an international college and to see how their context affects their motivation in their second language (L2) and third language (L3). The current study fills a gap in the research fields of motivation research because multiple language motivation has been under-researched. Previous studies that touched upon the topic of L3 motivation, very often, emphasized the increasing important role of English as an international language and how learning English reduces learners' motivation to learn L3s or even local languages (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2006; Dewaele, 2005; Gabrys-Barker, 2010; Henry, 2010, 2011; Ushioda, 2013). However, few studies focused on learners with positive attitudes to learn L3s. Although some researchers reported that learners have separate language selves (Lau et al., 1999; Yeung & Wong, 2004; Mercer, 2011), the over-emphasis on negative influence of English has led to over-generalizations and has obscured the complexity and dynamicity of motivation among multiple language learners who made an active decision to study L3s. The current study, thus, aims to investigate the complexity of motivation across languages and the dynamic interactions between languages simultaneously learned and FLA and IP. FLA is crucial for motivation study as it is one of emotional states that is strongly linked to motivational constructs like ought-to self and is a distinguishing factor between learners with different motivational characteristics (Papi, 2010; Papi & Teimouri, 2014). Learners

with high level of IP were found to be motivated to learn and more inclined to take part in FL communication (e.g., Yashima, 2002). IP also contributed to the formation of students' self-concept (Csizer & Kormos, 2009). While previous studies found a relationship between IP and motivation to learn English, the current study will investigate the link between IP and motivation to study languages other than English.

1.1 Foreign Language Learning in Thailand

It could be said that Thailand's population is less diverse than the populations of other ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) nations and thus the majority are monolingual speakers of Thai (Kirkpatrick, 2010, p. 49). However, Kirkpatrick reported that some sixty other languages are spoken in Thailand but the number of these speakers represent less than 5% of the overall population of over sixty million. People in different parts of Thailand speak in different dialects but standard Thai is the language used in schools and universities across the country.

Although Thailand is considered a monolingual country, it has not been able to resist the flood of globalization and modernization. Knowledge of foreign languages is required in order to communicate on the international stage and help promote economic growth of the country. Dijkstra and van Heuven (2010) suggested that, "More and more, our world is turning into a global village ... in which the mastery of several languages is considered an important skill or even a prerequisite for international communication" (p. 55). It is not surprising that the top foreign languages in Thailand are English, Chinese, Japanese and Korean, all of which are the languages of world leading economies. This also reflects in people's investment in foreign language learning. Even among young learners, compulsory education in a foreign language was imposed on them from a very early age and this has become more prevalent (Abhakorn, 2003). In

some private schools students are also required to study a second foreign language from the first grade (age 6-7).

Of all foreign languages, English is the first language to establish itself very firmly in Thai compulsory education. Fitzpatrick (2011) suggested that English was first taught in Thailand in the 1850s and has always held an important role in the Thai education system although English has never been used as an internal language (p. 21). The demand to learn English is generally known, for as Kirkpatrick (2010) put it, “the role of English as the international lingua franca and language of modernity has resulted in an enormous demand for it” (p. 49). Since English is a subject in the university entrance examination, it is regarded as a form of gate-keeping and social mobility (Fitzpatrick, 2011, p. 33) and therefore, strongly associated with the elite in Thailand (Rappa & Wee, 2006; Kulsiri, 2006; Hayes, 2008; Kosonen, 2008). English may have little relevance for the majority of Thai lives (Smalley, 1994; Hayes, 2008; Kosonen, 2008) but in particular fields like tourism, international trade and finance, English was used as a lingua franca (Baker, 2008) so it is regarded as a key to obtain a well-paid job (Keyuravong, 2010).

However, currently it seems that English is not the only language people want to learn. The figures revealed by the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) showed that Eastern languages are becoming popular, particularly Chinese which comes in second as the foreign language most studied in high schools apart from English. Almost 300,000 students study Chinese in 700 high schools across the country, compared to 34,000 learners of Japanese and 12,000 of Korean. Although learners of the latter two are still small in number, it is believed that Japanese and Korean are becoming more popular as well (*The Nation*, 24 April 2012).

Amidst the rush to study as many foreign languages as possible, it is curious how students can manage to learn their second or third language simultaneously. English, for example, is the language every child must learn, but still Thailand came 116th out of 163 countries on the TOEFL test (Sanyal, 2012) and ranked near the bottom in TOEIC and TOEFL test out of ten countries in ASEAN (Bunnag, 2005). Many studies related to the foreign language classroom in Thailand have pointed to problems in the language teaching policy (Todd & Keyuravong, 2004), discrepancies between curriculum approaches and teachers' practices (Kulsiri, 2006), and the lack of teachers, resources and classroom management (Bruthiaux, 2010). Many language teachers might have experienced these kinds of problems as Bruthiaux noted, "in developing, resource-poor societies especially, these conditions include not only the minimal presence of English beyond the classroom but also very large classes, teachers with minimal English proficiency" (2010, p. 366). Moreover, there are large gaps between schools, especially between those in cities and rural areas. The situation is even worse for schools in rural areas. Luangthongkum (2007) reported that the lack of qualified teachers and resources, especially in the countryside "has caused a disaster as far as English language teaching and learning is concerned" (p. 189).

Since little success was seen in the teaching of English, regardless of the time and effort invested by the Ministry of Education, it is intriguing what the future of other foreign languages will be, which compared to English, are in their early stage in Thai formal education. Is there a future for other foreign language learning? Will learning other FLs will face the same result as learning English, which is like a nightmare for many Thai students? Is it beneficial for the country to invest in other foreign language learning when learners are still struggling to cope with a single main foreign language? It might be worth knowing how much emphasis is put on learning additional languages.

Despite the increasing popularity, the numbers of other foreign language learners are relatively small compared to 100% of learners of English in high schools. Normally, foreign languages other than English are elective subjects for language major students. Also, the numbers of hours devoted to foreign languages other than English are quite small (see Table 1).

Table 1.1 Number of hours of English instruction at primary and secondary levels

Level	Hours of teaching	Languages
Primary 1-3	40 hours a year (1 hour a week)	English only
Primary 4-6	80 hours a year (2 hours a week)	
Lower Secondary	120 hours a year (3 hours a week)	English is main foreign language Other foreign languages
Upper Secondary	80 hours a year + elective hours (2 hours a week + electives)	

(Adapted from Keyuravong, 2010, p. 70)

The role of other foreign languages in formal education starts from senior high school. Namely, for the last three years in high school, students can choose to study in language or science tracks. Those who decide to follow the language track will learn either English or additional languages which are offered by their schools. The Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) declared that there are up to 11 foreign languages taught at high schools across the country, namely French, German, Spanish,

Russian, Arabic, Burmese, Vietnamese, Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Khmer.

However, in reality, students often cannot choose to learn the language they want because their school cannot offer the course for many reasons (e.g., lack of teachers, no capacity, and small number of learners). Of all these languages, French, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean are more prevalent in the high school context.

Although French is another Western language apart from English that is widely taught in high schools, the increasing importance of Eastern languages affects the number of learners of French. OBEC indicated that during the 2007-2011 academic years, students studying French declined (*The Nation*, 24 April 2012). In the past, French was taught as an elective subject in almost every OBEC school, but at the moment some schools do not offer French courses any longer. Meanwhile, schools have more Eastern language teachers, and students have more choices to study languages other than English and French. The deputy director of the Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards at OBEC claimed that this is because the upcoming “ASEAN Economic Community has also affected students' decisions, with more of them deciding to study Asian languages, including those used in our neighbouring countries” (ibid).

With the declining popularity of Western languages except English, Asian languages have become more palatable to young learners, for many reasons. First of all, it could be said that learners might want to learn foreign languages for instrumental reasons. Chinese, for example, has become the regional lingua franca, like English, causing high demand for Chinese native speakers to teach Chinese in Thailand. Crystal (2003, p. 5) maintained that, “Mandarin Chinese continues to play an important role in South-east-Asia.” Knowing Chinese, thus, is a key to business opportunities both with China itself and many other countries in Asia where Chinese is spoken. Another reason

young people prefer studying an Asian language is largely due to integrative orientation. It could be said that while Chinese is considered the most popular language in terms of its instrumental use, both Japan and Korea are more successful in promoting their cultures. Japan's popular culture (manga, anime, J-pop and J-rock) has been circulating in East and Southeast Asia for decades, before the rise of Korean media culture (films, music, arts, and fashion) which recently seems to compete with Japan and influences many aspects of cultural and social discourse in Asia (Shim, 2006, p. 25). Despite the fact that Japan and Korea are expanding their industries throughout Asia creating jobs and demands to learn their languages out of instrumental purposes, it is undeniable that considerable numbers of learners choose to study these two languages purely because of their interest in the cultural products and entertainment.

Chinese was first taught as a school subject in Thailand in the eighteenth century (Kirkpatrick, 2010, p. 50), but it was proscribed from the 1930s to 1960s during the anti-China furore and the rise of Thai nationalism (Chongkittavorn, 2010). Whoever studied Chinese was considered a communist or a communist sympathiser (Masuntisuk, 2009). Thailand and China re-established their relationship in 1975, but it was not until 1992 that Chinese language education was made accessible to the public again and became a subject in the national entrance examination in 1998 (ibid). Currently, Chinese courses are mushrooming all over the country and the numbers of Chinese teachers and learners are rapidly increasing. The Chinese government has promoted the language by opening several Confucius Institutes in Thailand. The establishment of Confucius Institutes is the cooperation between Chinese and Thai university partners. The institute aims to promote Chinese language and culture. In 2015 there are 12 Confucius Institutes in Thailand.

In terms of the Japanese language, teaching it in Thai universities goes back to the 1960s. Unlike Chinese, Japanese language education has never suffered from the political situation. Japanese has been constantly garnering attention from young learners both in high schools and universities. Recent evidence showed that the number of learners is growing. A study by Na Ranong and her associates (2008) suggested that in the past two decades, Japanese teaching increased dramatically. According to the survey report by the Japan Foundation (2006), learners of Japanese in Thailand increased from 22,152 in 1993 to 71,083 in 2006. A study by the Japan Foundation (2000) confirmed that young learners in Thailand are attracted to Japanese because of their interest in Japan's subculture (songs, comic, books, animation, and television game), although the direct cause of study might have to do with Thailand's close economic ties to Japan.

Of all three Eastern languages, Korean is the latest one to be included in middle education in Thailand. The Korean language was first taught in Thailand in 1986 at Prince of Songkla University. However, it was not until the late 1990s with the emergence of the Korean Wave that the Korean language became one of the foreign languages most studied by Thai learners. Cho (2011) defined the Korean Wave as a fast growing popularity in Korean entertainment and culture. It is a "pan-Asian cultural trend" that became a regional appeal because it "reflects the intricate connections among different and uneven Asian sensibilities" (Cho, 2011, p. 395). During his visit to Thailand in April 2012, the Korean Foreign Minister expressed the desire to set up a Korean Education Centre and a Korean Cultural Centre in Thailand in 2012 in order to "encourage the training of Korean language and the studying of Korean culture for Thais and foreigners residing in Thailand" (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012).

1.2 ASEAN Economic Community (AEC)

The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) is the regional integration between 10 countries in Southeast Asia that was planned for implementation in 2015. The purpose of the AEC is to transform ASEAN into a “region with free movement of goods, services, investment, skilled labour, and freer flow of capital” (ASEAN Secretariat, 2012). The integration is not only between the member countries but also now gains attention from other countries as well. China, Japan, and South Korea were the first involved in this plan, known as ASEAN +3, which later on became ASEAN + 6 with more countries included (India, Australia and New Zealand). It had been estimated that ASEAN +6 would be the world’s biggest free trade market.

The AEC seems to be a beneficial plan for the whole region; however, instead of viewing this change as an opportunity for the country to flourish in this free market, Thailand found this opportunity a challenging one. There was speculation that after the regional economic integration (AEC), Thailand’s linguistic environment would change to become more multilingual and multicultural. As a monolingual country, this change means that willingly or not Thai people will be forced to communicate in languages other than Thai. The free flow of goods, services, and capital will attract international investment. This causes concerns among the Thai workers who might be at risk of losing their jobs to skilled labourers from other member countries who can use English better than most Thais and can communicate in other major Asian languages.

English was chosen as the official language in the AEC. While the role of English as an international language cannot be diminished or replaced by other languages in the near future, other foreign languages seem to gradually claim their position as lingua francas in the region. Therefore, it is not surprising that the

government issued considerable plans to boost foreign language learning, including the campaign “English Speaking Year 2012” trying to motivate and boost the confidence of Thai learners to communicate in English by involving schools across the country to organize activities for students and teachers to practice English communication skills one day a week. The whole nation seems to respond to the upcoming economic integration with a rush to learn as many languages as possible regardless of what language is needed or in what industry. This is reflected in this news excerpt.

Thai students 'must learn languages'

Thai students have been urged to improve their English and also learn a third language so they can compete with people from other Southeast Asian nations when the region becomes a single economic community of more than 600 million people in 2015.

The Bangkok Post, 20 June 2011

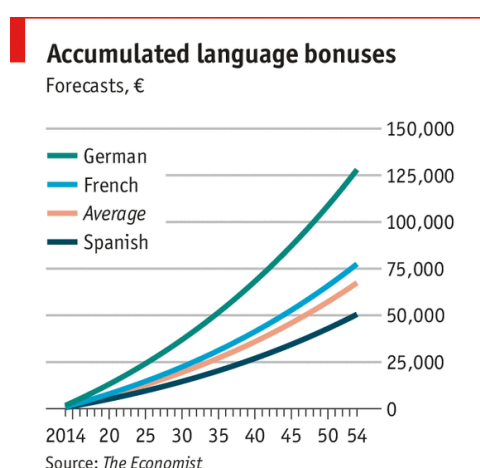
The above headline is an example of how Thai media circulate the news about the nation's becoming a part of economic integration in 2015 and how Thais should be prepared for a more multilingual environment. This news headline might somehow expect readers to understand how important foreign language is. However, one cannot help feeling that learning foreign languages becomes something imposed on learners, in other words, a necessity rather than choice.

Although the implementation of the AEC might cause concerns among Thais about their language proficiency, people seem to be pressured with their English skills most while other foreign languages are somewhat added in order to strengthen their competitiveness in the labour market. Kirkpatrick (2010), one of the scholars researching the role of English in Southeast Asia, concluded that English remains the

most important language in ASEAN for a long time to come although “Chinese Chinese languages are spoken in all the countries of ASEAN and Putongha [Mandarin Chinese] is becoming increasingly spoken as the lingua franca among overseas Chinese communities”. He also predicted that English will play an important role despite the increasing demand to learn other lingua francas like Chinese, “there is ... little likelihood that Putonghua will join English as a working language of ASEAN in the near future” (p. 16).

The reasons behind motives to learn foreign languages (FLs) seem to be economic ones. Johnson from *The Economist* (11 March, 2014) discussed in “What is a Foreign Language Worth?” the value of FLs that might affect an individual’s salary throughout the years and how each language has different economical value to the demand and supply of the market. Figure 1.1 shows the forecast of accumulated value of foreign languages. The value was calculated based on economic openness; Germany is the trade powerhouse, so German has the highest value over other FLs. In the subsequent article by the same author, “English at Universities” (7 May, 2014), Johnson related English language learning with financial incentives on both knowledge providers and learners. With the increasing importance of English as the world lingua franca, many universities offer English-medium courses to attract more learners who want “not just studying English, but in English”.

Figure 1.1 The Forecast of Accumulated Language Bonuses



(Source: Johnson, *The Economist*, 2014)

The rush for FL learning has resulted in a number of students taking FL majors and Thai universities offer a wide range of foreign languages, especially, Asian languages, in response to the increasing demand. For those who can afford it, an international college is another tempting choice as students can study the subject area of their interest in English. In many universities, not only students have to take English exit exam, they are also required to study a third language. Therefore, the increase in English-medium education and L3 learning in university are the focus of the current research.

1.1 Aims of the Research

Although the validity of the L2 motivational self system had been tested widely in EFL settings, more empirical studies are needed to include learners of L3s. There are some gaps in the area of motivational self system regarding multiple language learners, and the dynamic interplay between variables like FLA and IP. This research aims to discover learners' motivation and FLA and IP across the languages of multiple language learners in Thailand.

First of all, this study aims to focus on university language-related students. Few studies have focused on university students who at this level might be more serious about the language choice. Most research on L3 motivation has been conducted with secondary school students (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2006; Henry, 2010, 2011, 2012). While high school students might not take additional languages seriously, some university students might think about their future career and how their choice will benefit them in the not-too-distant future.

Moreover, this study investigates the stability of learners' motivation, anxiety and IP across languages that they have simultaneously acquired. Most studies on motivational self system have been validated in various EFL contexts (e.g., China, Japan, Iran in Taguchi et al., 2009), and even in some languages other than English, for example, Chinese (Xie, 2011), and are mainly quantitative based with few studies using a qualitative approach. The investigation of simultaneous language learners of English and a L3 has been investigated in some European countries (e.g., Henry, 2010, 2012; Gabrys-Barker, 2010; Gabrys-Barker & Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2012), but few studies compared learning of English and major Asian languages in Asia where geographical, cultural and historical backgrounds are different from Europe.

This study also aims to investigate the dynamic interplay between motivation, FLA and IP as there is abundant debate regarding the nature of motivation and these two variables in EFL context, but the study of cross-language relationships is scanty, especially on the question whether knowing languages other than English affects students' IP.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The current study attempts to fill in the gaps in the research fields of multiple language motivation. It also attempts to understand motivation from the learners' point of view, especially in a social context where learners are expected to know more than two FLs.

This study is important for three reasons. Firstly, as now Thailand is a part of the ASEAN economic community, there is increasing concern about Thais' weak language skills and intercultural competence. The insight gained from this study will help

teachers understand their students and help them to be motivated to learn foreign languages and more orientated towards the imagined international community.

Secondly, the study of L3 motivation will generate more understanding about multiple language learners' needs and difficulties as it has been found that L3 motivation is more prone to fluctuation (Mercer, 2011) and for many students, learning the L3s is a new territory in which students have no idea what they are going to face in the classroom. Jessner (2008) pointed out the complex process of acquiring L3s and interactions of the language systems that co-exist within multilinguals, which is different from L2 acquisition. Thus, we should not apply the large volume of EFL motivation research with the L3s learners whose learning situations might be different from English L2 learners.

Lastly, the current research will give insight on how to promote learners' motivation to learn regional or even local languages. Due to English globalization, motivations to learn languages other than English diminish as had been found in prior studies (e.g., Henry, 2010, 2011, 2012). This will help create a more diverse language community. Students with more than one separate language self (Lau et al., 1999; Yeung & Wong, 2004; Mercer, 2011) may be able to maintain and visualize their future ideal selves in each language to serve both their immediate and future needs under the limited linguistic resources.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into eight chapters. The first chapter provides background about the FL learning situation in Thailand. Chapter two discusses previous research and related studies on motivation, foreign language anxiety and international posture. Chapter three concerns research design, instruments used to collect and

interpret the data. Chapter four and five are quantitative result and discussions.

Qualitative data was presented in Chapter six. In chapter seven, I will present longitudinal study of five students. The last chapter discusses the key findings as well as conclusion and implications.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a historical overview of motivation research and more specifically the L2 motivational self system and the dynamic system approach. Also, FLA and IP will be reviewed as related factors. The purpose of the literature review is twofold: to understand the work done in previous studies and to demonstrate the need for the present study.

2.2 A Brief Historical Overview of L2 Motivation

Among L2 motivation studies, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) socio-educational model is the major pioneer. They first researched L2 motivation in 1959, investigating linguistic aptitude and motivational factors of French L2 learners in Canada. Integrative and instrumental motivations were found influential. Integrative orientation refers to the learner's desire to identify with the members of the target language community (Gardner, 2004). This means the person may completely identify psychologically and emotionally with the community. This kind of cultural identification also implies to some degree "an openness to, and respect for other cultural group and way of life" and in the extreme this might result in withdrawal from one's original group (Gardner, 2001, p. 5). Instrumental orientation, on the other hand, emphasizes "the practical value and advantages of learning a new language (Lambert, 1974, p. 98)". Gardner's (1985) has developed Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to measure learners' integrative and instrumental motivation, which has been widely used in motivation research.

Although the concept of integrative and instrumental motivations has been widely used in motivational studies, the concept itself is somehow problematic and ambiguous. Throughout the 1980s, the integrative concept caused substantial debates concerning strong (social identification and integration) and weak (sense of affiliation and interest) versions of integrative L2 motivation (McDonough, 1981; Clement & Kruidenier, 1983). Dörnyei (2003) also criticized the concept as enigmatic and difficult to define because it has no obvious parallel in mainstream motivational psychology. Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) also pointed out that in countries where learners rarely have a chance to meet any native speaker, “there is no real or potential ‘integration’ involved” (p. 455). Furthermore, in the era of language globalization, we cannot define who L2 speakers of English are because “ownership of English” (Widdowson, 1994, 1997) is considered international and not associated with any specific L2 community. Therefore, in the modern world English learners may not identify with a particular culture.

While Gardner’s social psychological concept has influenced the field of L2 motivation study for several decades, by the late 1980s some researchers believed in a need to refocus the concept. This resulted in a new era of the cognitive situated period where two related trends converged. The first was the desire to bring language motivation research in line with mainstream motivational psychology. The second was a focus on situated analysis of the specific learning context, such as the immediate classroom environment. Influential theories from this period are Dörnyei’s three-level framework of L2 motivation (1994a) and Williams and Burden’s social constructivist model (1997). Key areas of enquiry are attributional processes (e.g., Williams & Burden, 1999; Ushioda, 1996a, 1998), self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; La Guardia, 2009), autonomy theory (e.g., Dickinson, 1995), and task motivation (Julkunen, 2001).

After the transition from cognitive-situated analysis to process-oriented analysis, Williams and Burdens (1999) focused on motivation for engagement and during engagement. In other words, they investigated reasons for doing something and how to sustain the effort— generation and maintenance of motivation. Ushioda's (2009) similar study focused on time, exploring the dynamic nature of L2 motivation from a temporal perspective. Dörnyei and Otto (1998)'s process model of L2 motivation divided motivation into two dimensions, action sequence and motivational influences, in three phases—preactional, actional, and postactional.

The changing landscape of motivation studies from the process-oriented period towards a more socio-dynamic perspective was linked to the globalization of English and the growing interest in the complex interaction between individual and context. Dörnyei (2009b) proposed a dynamic system perspective. The attempt to explore how motivation develops through the complex interaction between self and context resulted in a number of works on person-in-context. Coyle et al. (2014) maintained that self and learning environment were two key aspects of motivation. Bonny Norton (2000, 2002, 2014) developed concepts of investment to explain socially and historically constructed relationships of learners and target language. Learners' desire and commitment to learn a language were tied to their complex and changing identity: "if learners invest in a second language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital" (Norton, 2000, p. 10). Norton found highly motivated students did not always invest in language learning sometimes due to an unequal power relation with TL speakers.

Another attempt to conceptualize motivation with connection to the individuals' social context is to adopt dynamic system theory (DST) which, as scholars believed, can

avoid the notions of “single causes, linear causality, immutable categories and highly specified endpoints” (Schumann, 2015, p. xv). DST is considered “the combined impact of multiple factors which influence every human decision and every social phenomenon” (Dörnyei et al., 2014, p. 17). It thus helps increase ecological validity. However, scholars wonder about researchability because to assess and interpret specific events seem to be challenging to researchers (Dörnyei et al., 2014). DST aims to predict motivation even when many contextual factors influence it. Henry (2015) stated three important aspects to be considered when applying DST to motivation research—1) changes to attractor states, 2) system connectedness, and 3) timescales. As things do not operate in isolation, it is crucial to identify the systems that constitute or relate to the focal system being studied (p. 84). Motivational trajectories might evolve over the timescale under the influences of attractors and the systems, which are also subject to changes. Empirical studies applying DST aimed to see both short-term and long-term changes of motivation in relation to attractors (e.g., MacIntyre & Serroul, 2015; Piniel & Csizer, 2015; Yashima & Arano, 2015). Even Dörnyei’s L2 motivational self system is also considered part of DST as the concepts of self and learning context have significant impact on their learning motivation.

Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) are novel psychological constructs in one major motivation theory. Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim (2014) proposed that this conceptual framework could help “energise language learners to perform beyond expectations and across several levels and timescales, including long-term engagements” (p.9). This concept garners a great deal of attention in SLA due to its capacity to identify diverse factors that could be investigated following DST (Henry, 2015). DMCs are heightened motivational periods considered very effective to create “momentum” for an individual to pursue a personally important, satisfying goal.

Dörnyei et al. (2015) further explained that individuals with DMCs would engage in a series of tasks to achieve “a highly valued end” (p. 96). Although DMCs have never been thoroughly identified with motivation theories in language learning, they are relevant to such mainstream theories as goal-setting, self-determination and L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei et al., 2015).

2.3 The L2 Motivational Self System

Motivational Self System is the self-concept developed from mainstream psychological concepts. Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed “L2 Motivational Self System” based on “possible selves” (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and self-discrepancy theory (e.g., Higgins, 1987). The L2 motivational self system concept was shown to have strong explanatory power and did not contradict the traditional concept. The concept deals with the individual’s imagined future conceptions of themselves. This new motivational concept consists of three components—the ideal self, ought-to self, and L2 learning experiences.

Ideal self is the person’s hope, aspiration or wish to possess certain attributes. Ideal self significantly correlates with integrativeness and can explain more variance in intended effort (Taguchi et al., 2009; Ryan, 2009).

Ought-to self refers to the attributes that the person believes he or she ought to possess as a result of one’s perceived duties, obligation or responsibilities towards family or significant others. Although ought-to self can be the main motivator if the person wants to learn L2 in order to live up to expectation of family or significant others, it was found that the effect of this variable is less than that of ideal self.

L2 learning experience comprises immediate learning environments and experiences. This component is situation-specific motives that can affect learners' attitudes towards L2 learning. It is also strongly linked to learners' motivated behaviour (Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). The actual learning process that can engage learners successfully can create a considerable impact on some learners with initial motivation to learn L2.

This tripartite model includes both cognitive and situated aspects of motivation, but this study focuses only on the cognitive aspect of the self (ideal self and ought-to self). The contrast between the two cognitive concepts is that ideal self is promotion-oriented whereas ought-to self is prevention-oriented. Ideal self is the one the person would like to become while ought-to self is the person's belief about what one should possess in order to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcome. In a way, ideal self has been proved to be the most powerful predictor of motivation (Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; Munezane, 2013) whereas ought-to self links to FLA (Papi, 2010). Having a clear ideal self can result in motivated learning behavior because learners will try to reduce the gap between their actual self and possible future self. On the other hand, internalization of ought-to self can lead to the person's adoption of such others' values and expectation as one's own.

2.4 L2 Motivational Self System and the Concept of Self

The concept of self is important in the process of language learning as the learners' sense of agency is an important step toward learners' motivation. Ushioda (2014) also pointed out that science of motivation in the second half of the 20th century has focused on the "conscious mental processes of the self" (p. 127). Many self-

concepts have been related to motivation study such as self-efficacy, self-discrepancy, possible self, imagined self or even motivational self system.

While most motivational self concepts aim to help learners generate language learning vision or ideal self, those visions are predominantly learners' own first-person point of view. Vasquez and Buehler (2007) explored how the third-person perspective can create mental imagery that enhances motivation. It is believed that the third person is different to the first person possible selves in that it provides individuals with more personal meaning and significance. This is because, as the researchers explained, learners with the third-person perspective will get the sense of detachment for the imageries rather than immerse within them as imageries produced by the first-person.

Based on the works of Vasquez and Buehler (2007), Ryan and Irie (2014) also investigated the concept of self and how imagined and possible self could help students enhance their motivation. They highlighted the role of imagination as helping the internalization of "what was once a remote, external obligation; pressure from others to succeed on a test is gradually incorporated into the self-concept through repeated mental simulations" (p. 119). The researchers underscored the importance of the imagined and possible selves from the third-person perspective instead of the dominant first person perspective, claiming learners would benefit more from being the audience while developing the story of the self.

Apart from third person perspective, Murphey et al. (2014) proposed learners' imagination of the ideal classmate as a way to help students internalize ideal possible self they think their classmate should possess. Such process was called "reciprocal idealizing" claiming that images of ideal classmates can encourage individuals to become introjective.

Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) stated in the book “Motivating Learners, Motivating Teachers” about the role of vision as a strong sensory element that plays an important part in helping the person achieve their goal. The book demonstrates how the language teacher can integrate vision in their classroom practice to motivate learners and enhance their vision. Vision is related to Markus and Nurius’ (1986) concept of the possible self. The gap between students’ present self and desired future self might be difficult for some students to materialize, so they need to have a vivid picture of how to pursue their goal.

2.5 Motivation in EFL Context

Motivation studies have proliferated in EFL context as the growth of English in mainstream education dominates language curricula in many parts of the world. Many studies showed that despite the increasing demand to learn English, there are many problems concerning students’ motivation. Ushioda (2013) suggested that in some countries, high demand to learn English might cause the shortage of specialist teachers. Thus, some teachers might lack skills, training, or motivation to teach, which can be unpleasant for students. In the expanding circle of English as a FL (Kachru, 1985), especially in developing countries, such problems are common.

Lamb (2012) compared motivations of Indonesian students in rural areas with those in metropolitan areas. He found that low ideal L2 self in rural area students was a result of lack of resources and support from their parents. Meanwhile students in metropolitan area had high ideal self and could relate their future self to professionalism. The findings reflect English learning not only in Indonesia, but in other developing countries where urban middle class groups have better opportunities than

their rural counterparts. Lamb (2012), thus, proposed the need to reduce the gap between “the English-speaking ‘haves’” and the “non-English-speaking ‘have-nots’” (Phillipson, 2002, p. 4).

Sometimes socioeconomic status and limited resources are not the only factors lowering students’ motivation. In Japan, one of the first-world, westernized countries, students still face problems with motivation to learn English. Ryan (2008, 2009) reported his regular encounter of a contradictory mixture of “raw enthusiasm and extreme apathy” in the students (Ryan, 2009, p. 405). Some studies investigated factors related to students’ demotivation (Kikuchi, 2009, 2013). Sometimes, Japanese learners were not motivated to learn due to perceived lack of use of English in professional setting. Japanese learners tended to prefer domestic companies to international organizations or overseas partly because of the higher salary and job security Japanese companies could offer compared to the hardship associated with working abroad (Taguchi, 2013). Yashima (2009) found that Japanese learners did not connect studying English with their ideal selves because in their minds the process of learning was just memorizing vocabulary or reading texts aloud.

Even in some parts of Europe where the acquisition of English does not seem to be a problem, the decline of students’ motivation in class also appeared. Henry (2013, 2014) claimed that the discrepancies of English inside and outside class made students feel English in class was less relevant to their daily lives and take a “rather relaxed approach to learning English in school” (p. 135). Such an effortless English learning environment was believed to reduce the efficacy of hard work and students’ classroom motivation. Taylor (2013) reported a similar problem with students in Romania. English was perceived as a language that could be acquired outside the classroom context. Although students can learn English from popular youth culture outside class, they lack

motivation to focus on grammatical control and accuracy and play down formal English lessons. Ryan and Mercer (2011) reported a similar result in Austria and Japan where learners attributing learning success to learning environment (e.g., studying abroad) or natural ability rather than learning efforts. The researchers argued that this mindset might hinder construction of learner autonomy. Although close contact with English cultural products help students improve their English skills, it also backfires.

Nevertheless, it is clear youth culture plays a role in English learning. According to Ushioda (2013), in European societies, especially Scandinavian ones, the status of English has a pervasive presence. Due to advances in communication technology, English has become a part of daily activities. Students' close contact to youth culture and media in English helps generate fluent bilingual English speakers in even greater numbers than in outer circle countries where English is the official second language. For example, Henry (2013, 2014) pointed out how English becomes integral part of young people's lives in Sweden through internet activities and digital gaming. Students reported to learn English outside school as a common phenomenon.

Pop culture appeared to be an important factor in supporting motivation and enhancing vision of possible selves in many studies. Sade (2011) applied DST to investigate the interaction between identity emergence and motivation and how that leads to autonomous learning, by analyzing an autobiographic narrative of a male Brazilian student. The student attributed his success in learning English to his interest in rock and roll music rather than to the classroom. Murray (2011) also found that in the self-directed learning course, students' choice of content like movies and television programs motivated them to learn slang and expressions. Students believed that the content they learned from pop culture would be useful to communicate with future English-speaking friends.

Although interest in pop culture is linked to motivation to learn English, it does not have the same impact on all age groups. Kormos and Csizer (2008) found age-related differences in three age groups of 632 Hungarian learners of English: secondary school students, university students, and adult learners. The findings showed that English-language cultural products affected learners' motivated learning behaviour but the effect was only strong among secondary students. For university students and adult learners, IP was a more important variable.

Studies in many countries showed that local culture and practice heavily influenced learners' motivations, particularly in some countries in Asia where Confucius heritage culture is still prevalent. Magid (2011) found that four aspects of Chinese culture—face, responsibility, family, and pressure—were important to understand Chinese learners' motivation as they had strong family influence. Magid (2012) also found Chinese EFL learners felt an obligation to perform well in English to fulfill their parents' wish to bring honour to the family's name.

Therefore, ought-to self seems to play an important role in Chinese context as students internalized a self-image based on others' vision for themselves. A number of studies in China showed Chinese students motivated to study English for pragmatic reasons (future career, high salary) and due to parents' influence (e.g., Tachibana et al. 1996; Gao, 2004). Jiang (2013) found gender greatly linked to motivation for EFL learners in China: female learners' engagement in English learning was in alignment with social expectation. English could offer female learners new possible self-images beyond traditional female working areas. Female students associated English learning with personal success and created a bond between their future selves and their parents' hope.

Contexts are strongly linked to students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as seen in a comparative study between Chinese ESL and EFL learners. Qi Li (2014) compared Chinese EFL learners in China with Chinese ESL learners in New Zealand and found differences in motivation between the two groups. While EFL students' parents and significant others greatly influenced their motivated learning behaviour, ESL students seemed to have stronger ideal self, showed more intended learning effort, and were more positive towards learning English.

In Asian context, the feeling of obligation towards family expectation leads to students internalizing ought-to self, adopting the value imposed on them by significant others as their own, and developing it into ideal future self. Ushioda (2014) described this process as "desirable obligation." In Taiwan, Chen (2012) found the inconsistency of the motivational self concept in a qualitative study with Taiwanese students. While the original concept of L2 motivational self system suggests that ideal self was a promotion focus and ought-to self, a prevention focus, she found the students' ought-to self reflected both promotion- and prevention-focused.

Kim's (2009) longitudinal study of two Korean ESL learners was another example of how the individual motivation, in this case, the ought-to self, transfers to the ideal self. Kim conducted an in-depth longitudinal interview with two Korean students in Canada on a monthly basis. The two participants, one with a concrete future plan, could integrate ought-to self into ideal self. With a strong pragmatic aim, a participant in Kim's instrumentality could internalize promotion-focused self-image. Without the process of internalization, Kim claimed learners become passive and prevention-focused. A pragmatic goal can be merged into both ideal self and ought-to self.

Ryan and Irie (2013) explained the overlapping concept of ideal self and ought-to self, a desirable obligation, as a normal act of belonging to the groups in which one

has to conform oneself to group norms. Such process has undergone harmony and conflicts between ideal self and ought-to self. External influences can concur or are in conflicts with individual's ideal self.

Culture rooted in Confucian teaching, and collectivistic cultures revealed similar results. Papi (2010) found that among Iranian EFL high school students, the concept of ideal self and ought-to self overlapped. The researcher explained this as a result of learners not having internalized self-image to delineate what they would like to become and what they ought to become. They also pointed out the collective nature of Iranian society as one reason why learners had few chances for self-recognition, so they might internalize social standard or expectation of others as their own ideal self.

Islam et al. (2013) proposed a new construct “national interest” as one of motivating factors for EFL students in Pakistan. The researchers claimed that Pakistani learners projected their self-image as English users according to their desire to improve their socio-economic status, internal harmony, and international reputation of their country. Collectivistic culture appeared as an important factor as the researchers found that national interest was one of the reasons Pakistani students invested in English learning.

Lamb (2013) also found the relationship between young Indonesian students' ideal self and their social motives. Students in rural area where parents had limited support for their education found it difficult to develop their ideal selves based on professional ones. Although they might have had a rather idealistic view of learning English like a desire to meet a superstar, these students still showed signs of collectivistic culture. For example, they thought that knowing English would make their family proud of them, and, that knowledge of English would be useful to serve the local community and contribute to the interest of the country.

However, a study from Bahrain did not show obvious collectivistic influence. Students' motivation appeared to be influenced by strong personal goals. Malcolm (2013) investigated motivation to learn English among Gulf Arab medicine students and found that students had both preventive- and promotional focuses. Students found English a challenging medium of instruction, and many faced problems in adjusting to the new academic setting. They had low self-esteem due to their poor English. They were afraid of dropping out and going back home as a failure. Although these students had prevention-focused ought-to self, their motivation seemed to be less influenced by collectivism than other Asian subjects. For these medicine students, the shift from ought-to self to ideal self not only came from significant others or social expectation, but from incorporating their goal of becoming a proficient English user with professional careers. These learners linked their motivation to learn English with their future selves as successful doctors.

Although collectivistic culture might play an important role in learners' motivation to learn English, research carried out in collectivistic societies leads to inconsistent results. While members of collectivistic society tend to have interdependent relationships (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), MacIntyre et al. (2009) noted that motivational qualities of possible selves might be influenced by other cultural differences in self-concept. A comparative study of three Asian countries (Taguchi et al. 2009), two with Confucian background, might illuminate this issue.

Taguchi et al. (2009) conducted a comparative study of L2 motivation in China, Japan and Iran, all of which are considered collectivistic. The study suggested how cultural context played an important role in learners' motivation. In China, ought-to self highly influenced students' motivation as found in previous studies (e.g., Magid, 2011, 2012; Jiang, 2013) with strong correlation with *instrumentality-promotion*. For Chinese

students, *L2 learning experiences* were less important, but it was a major motivator for students in Japan. For Japanese students, *Attitudes to L2 culture and community* was strongly related to ideal self compared to weaker correlation of *instrumentality-promotion*. This suggested that Japanese learners' ideal self was not linked to a professional successful self, although they studied English to obtain a good job. Japanese students' ought-to self strongly correlated with prevention aspects compared to Chinese and Iranian students. Similar to the result in China, Iranian students' ought-to self strongly correlated with *instrumentality-promotion*. But *L2 learning experiences* were more important for Iranian students than Chinese students. To sum up, L2 learning experiences were less important for Chinese students compared to Japanese and Iranian students while ought-to self was less important for Japanese students but appeared as a motivating factor for Chinese and Iranian students.

The influence of ought-to self seemed to peak in collectivistic societies. In Hungary, it had limited role on students' motivated learning behaviour. Csizer and Kormos (2009) conducted a questionnaire research with two groups of students (secondary school and university students) and found ideal self more strongly linked to learning effort and IP than the ought-to self. Although parental encouragement played a substantial role on students' ought-to self, students did not internalize the socially constructed value as ideal self as found in Asian context.

Different parts of the world not only saw different aspects of learners' motivation but different motivational strategies among teachers. Guilloteaux (2013) investigated motivational strategies used among 268 secondary school teachers in South Korea, based on Dörnyei and Csizer's (1998) study. The results revealed that Korean teachers' motivational belief and practice were different from other local contexts. While teachers from Taiwan, Hungary, and the U.S. in previous research believed in

promoting learners' motivation by creating positive classroom climate, establishing learner group cohesiveness and constructive group norms, most Korean teachers did not use these strategies or follow motivational teaching practice. Guilloteaux's (2013) study, however, concurred with Cowie and Sakui's (2011) work in Japan. They had found that Japanese university lecturers perceived that it was not their role to boost students' motivation and promote learner autonomy.

The review of motivation studies in EFL context confirms Ushioda's person-in-context relational view (2009) of the importance of context in influencing individual's motivation. The next section will discuss third language acquisition and motivation.

2.6 Third Language Acquisition and Motivation

Jessner (2006) suggested that studying two foreign languages has become a much more common phenomenon, however, "third language learning at school has received a little attention so far" (p. 121). Third language has always been an issue of interest (Weinreich, 1953; Vildomec, 1963) but it was not until the 1980s that language and linguistic studies focused on it (Franceschini, 2009). Hammarberg (2009) remarked that L3 acquisition is complex in the ways that individuals' languages interact. Cenoz (2003) described L3 acquisition as "the acquisition of a non-native language by learners who have previously acquired or are acquiring two other languages. The acquisition of the first two languages can be simultaneous (as in early bilingualism) or consecutive" (p. 71). De Angelis (2007), however, considered the term "L3" not suitable as it seems to exclude other languages in the mind of the multilingual speakers. Thus, she proposed the term "third or additional language acquisition" to refer to all languages acquired beyond L2, even though the term was "long and impractical" (p. 11).

The dominant literature on L3 acquisition from a psycholinguistic perspective is

cross-linguistic influence (CLI). Early research on CLI focused on the influence of L1 on L2 acquisition before getting to L3 acquisition. In L3 acquisition studies, sources of language transfer are not limited to L1 as in the case of L2 acquisition, but the two languages already acquired could be a potential transfer. Based on the reliance on previous languages, aspects of L3 acquisition research are language distance, metalinguistic awareness, proficiency in source and target languages, recency of use and length of residence in a non-native language environment (Garcia-Mayo, 2012, pp. 131-132).

Discussion on metalinguistic awareness as a factor in L3 acquisition began during the 1980s (De Angelis & Dewaele, 2009). Scholars reported bilinguals had more metalinguistic awareness than monolinguals (Thomas, 1988; Lasagabaster, 1997, Bono, 2011). This is probably because learners of L3 can “develop a metasystem” (Jessner, 2006, p. 61). Language learners also had greater facility to learn L3 than the L2 (McLaughlin & Nayak, 1989; Cenoz & Valencia, 1994).

Jessner (2006, 2009) claimed that multilingual mind is a dynamic system where interaction between three systems results in different abilities and skills that learners “develop due to their prior language learning experience” (2006, p. 35). The linear language growth model used in L1 and L2 traditional research is not appropriate to investigate the “biological growth” of L3, which, according to Jessner (2006) has to be seen as “a dynamic process characterized by the interplay of the systems involved in the process” (p. 33). Garcia-Mayo (2012) also noted that L3 was often treated as another L2.

Motivation research on L3 is scant compared to the large volume of English L2 motivation research. Although L3 acquisition is complex, motivation to learn L3s has not received much attention. Previous studies on motivation to learn several languages

found that learners had negative attitudes towards L3s due to the global presence of English. Jessner (2006) suggested that English “functions as an instrument of submersion by suppressing or replacing other linguistic knowledge and therefore constitutes a threat to the development of multilingualism on both individual and societal level” (p. 133). To support this claim, a series of research works in Hungary revealed that English was more popular than German, a regional lingua franca (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Kormos & Csizer, 2007; Csizer & Kormos, 2008; Kormos et al., 2008), and other foreign languages taught in the country such as French, Italian, and Russian (Dörnyei et al., 2006).

Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) investigated combined effects and interference of motivational profiles of 8,593 learners who simultaneously acquired English and German. They claimed that learning more than one L2 at the same time caused interferences: “positive attitudes toward one language can exist at the expense of another” (p. 657). Learners’ limited linguistic capacity also caused competition among target languages. Unsurprisingly, students chose to put their effort on English rather than other L3s.

Kormos and Csizer (2007) conducted an interview study with 40 secondary school students who studied English and German and found the relationship between motivation and the role of contact situation. The results showed cross-cultural contact linked to the increase in communicative competence and motivation and helped reduce FLA. Learners with cross-cultural contact experiences also tend to be more positive towards foreigners. English was the language used to communicate with people from outside the country. For example, a student reported regular use of English to communicate with tourists although they were German speakers.

Csizer and Lukacs (2010) conducted research with students who learned English and German simultaneously using DST. They looked at how learning two foreign languages simultaneously might affect students' attitudinal and motivational dispositions using Ideal L2 self as an attractor. The researchers investigated negative influences of English on German, comparing two groups of students, L2 English and L2 German. It was found that the preferred order of language learned affect learners' motivation—positive interference in L2 German towards both languages but not in the case of L2 English and that ideal L2 self predicts learning behaviour in both languages.

Henry (2010) conducted a longitudinal study with 172 Swedish students who simultaneously studied English and an additional language (French, Spanish, German and sign language). Data were collected when students were in grade 6 and again when they were in grade 9. While 44 students dropped FL in grade 9 mostly due to low motivation, one student reported to drop out because knowing only English was enough. For those who decided to continue FL study, their motivation scores remained the same in first and second data collection. According, to Henry (2010), this was because this group of learners was highly motivated. The result also confirmed that English had negative influence on L3 motivation, especially among boys.

In Belgium, Dewaele (2005) found that 100 Flemish high school students were more positive towards L3 English than L2 French despite the fact that they had longer formal instruction in French. Dewaele (2005) considered sociopolitical relations between the Dutch and French-speaking community as one of reasons one of reasons for the more negative attitude towards French. Again, Flemish students considered English a “cool” *lingua franca*.

Gabrys-Barker (2011) conducted research with two groups of senior university students. The Geneva Appraisal Questionnaire (GAQ) measured appraisal system of L2

vs. L3 learning process of the first group (15 students) while the other group (20 students) had to write about their perception of L2 and L3 learning experiences. The first group showed unstable affectivity between L2 and L3, suggesting L2 learning experiences did not affect L3 perception in the same way. Students in the first group also lacked confidence to improve their L3 to reach the same level of fluency in English. The second group, asked to write a retrospective narrative, reported positive attitudes and high motivation to learn English while motivation to learn L3 was not as strong. In both groups of students, inability to reach L3 fluency seemed to be the major drain on their motivation. They showed less autonomy and greater dependency on teachers in L3 learning. Gabrys-Barker (2011) concluded that learning L3 among adult learners is “more traumatic and more negative” (p. 96) because it brings about insecurity and anxiety which threaten their self-confidence and self-esteem.

In a subsequent research, Gabrys-Barker and Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2012) investigated 40 Polish adult learners who were studying L2 English and L3 French. They divided them into two groups of participants by early starters and late starters, to see whether the age of acquisition was involved in motivation to learn the L3. The late starters, who had high competency on L2 but were less successful in L3, showed negative attitudes towards L3 learning. They could not cope with their FLA and lacked L3 autonomy compared to English. In contrast, the early starters seemed to pass the metacognitive threshold (Cummins, 2000) to being experienced learners. L3 early starters were able to notice cross-linguistic similarities and apply them to L3 learning. The researchers, thus, suggested the institutionalized teaching of L3 start as early as possible.

Dörnyei et al. (2006) conducted a large-scale longitudinal study with over 13,000 secondary school students in Hungary and found that English was the top

language students wanted to learn while other foreign languages (German, French, Italian and Russian) were in constant decline. However, the researchers noted that although English was a preferred language by most students, L3 has become an optional choice for some students who sustained specialized interest in L3s. This can be seen from the pattern of scores in L3s like Italian and French, which appeared more stable in 2004 after the initial decline in 1999.

In Hong Kong, Mee-ling Lai (2001, 2005) found that students had different attitudes towards English, Mandarin and Cantonese. Students in Hong Kong valued English as the most instrumental language important for “upward and outward” social mobility. Chinese was considered important for nationwide communication, but despite China’s growing economic power in Hong Kong, Chinese was rated lowest among the three languages in both integrative and instrumental aspects. Cantonese was associated with in-group identity as it is a mother tongue for most people in Hong Kong.

Although previous research showed the constant decline of L3 motivation, suggesting global English as a factor that precipitated the change, some studies showed L3s still attracted some groups of learners. This group of L3 specialist learners received little attention so far in the field of motivation research. Even though the population of learners of FLs other than English is not so large compared to those of English, the attempt to promote multilinguals in many parts of the world, such as in EU or ASEAN, will only make L3 study more important. The number of L3 learners will only increase. Some studies of English L2 and other L3s reported students’ positive attitudes towards L3s, which challenges belief in English’s negative influence on learning other languages.

Studies are inconsistent about that influence. In secondary schools, the introduction of two FLs as obligatory makes learners trilinguals or multilinguals with

different level of competence in L2s and L3s. Henry and Apelgren (2008) investigated 532 Swedish girls' and boys' attitudes towards the new FLs before and after the introduction of the course. The students were in grade 4-6 from five different schools and studying Spanish, German, French and sign language as L3s. Girls and boys were equally positive about English, but girls were more positive towards L3s and L3 learning. However, when comparing ideal self scores of L2 English with other L3s after nearly one year of instruction, students rated higher ideal self score for L3 than for English. The researchers felt this more positive attitude towards L3s resulted from students' daily encounter with English that made it less idealized as a personal attribute and less of a new experience.

Humphrey and Spratt (2008) found that students in Hong Kong still had positive attitudes towards English and Japanese. The researchers replicated Dörnyei et al. (2006)'s study in Hungary, including four languages—English, Chinese, Cantonese and Japanese. They found English and Japanese rated high scores while Chinese did not. To their own surprise, Japanese, used in a limited circle, was not threatened by the presence of global English while Chinese did not seem to attract young learners in Hong Kong, though it is popular elsewhere. Nevertheless, the researchers did not jump to the conclusion that foreign languages in Hong Kong were less threatened than in Hungary. Instead, they attributed the different outcome to geographical factors that students live closer to the language of the country will highly appraise more of the language.

Zaragoza's (2011) study on multiple language learners in self-access centers showed that students did not always scorn L3s, despite the presence of global English. Zaragoza (2011) interviewed 33 Mexican learners in multilingual self-access centers where learners could learn more than one FL and found that English did not have negative influence on students' L3 motivation, as they perceived English as a common

language. Learning several languages at once was possible and learners' attitudes toward the languages being learned could be different at any given moment. L3s were considered significant, distinctive capital in academic and labour markets. This study showed that English did not always threaten motivation to learn other foreign languages, as students can have different attitudes and motivation to learn each language. It also reported that students who simultaneously learned foreign languages could make decisions on their learning such as creating hierarchies among languages.

Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner and Reyes (2004) investigated motivation of immigrant learners from different background towards learning Catalan, Spanish, and English using Gardner's Attitudes and Motivations Test Battery (AMTB). Four cultural backgrounds, Spanish, South American, African, and Asian related to very few differences in motivation towards any particular languages. Of the three languages, it was not a surprise that English and Spanish inspired more positive attitudes and higher motivation than Catalan. However, Dewaele (2009) questioned the categorization of the groups of participants. Spaniards and South Americans both speak Spanish. Moreover, Spaniards are a subgroup of Western Europeans, far smaller than the vast and diverse groups of Africans and Asians in the study.

Ushioda (2013) argued that the global status of English "may have negative consequences for students' motivation to learn other foreign, national or local languages" (p. 2), but the literature review showed that in simultaneously learned languages, English does not always have negative influence on other languages. Some learners were even more motivated to learn L3, considering it as a way to further their horizon and possibility for job opportunities (e.g., Grin, 2001; Zaragoza, 2011). The predominant view of English's negative influence on L3 might impede the attempt to promote L3 learning if such belief influences students' self-fulfilling prophecies or

create misconceptions among parents or education providers that they should make less effort to promote L3 learning. This might result in a less diversified language curriculum. Thus, there is a pressing need to investigate this issue further.

2.7 Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined FLA as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning. Spielberger (1983) classified two types of anxiety, state vs. trait anxiety. The former refers to anxiety caused by outside factors, which are temporary while the latter refers to the person’s personality with tendency to become anxious in different situations. Dörnyei (2009) called anxiety, “a curious variable”. Guiora (1983) maintained that “the task of learning a new language is a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition” because it threatens the learner’s self-concept and worldview (p. 8). Horwitz and her associates (1986) proposed that there are three performance-related components of FLA which are communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

In EFL context, Arnold and Brown (1999) suggested that anxiety is regarded as one of affective factors that obstructs the learning process. The negative effect of anxiety towards language learning is also confirmed by other researchers, for example, negative correlations between anxiety levels and L2 achievement measures (Aida, 1994; Coulombe, 2000; Gardner, 2005; Saito & Samimy, 1996), anxious learners’ avoidance behaviours like missing class and postponing homework (Horwitz et al., 1986), difficulties to learn and recall vocabulary items (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), and less volunteer answers in oral activities (Ely, 1986). A number of studies are devoted to

cognitive difficulty factors in order to find out what anxious learners suffer, for example, difficulty in acquiring and retrieving vocabulary items (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), produce less complex speech (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986), complaining of being left behind (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a), have a smaller base of language knowledge (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b), the effort they put on study does not yield the satisfactory result (Chen & Chang, 2004, p. 284). Therefore, it had been concluded that FLA has a moderate negative effect on language achievement (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999; Aida, 1994).

Despite the positive aspect of facilitating anxiety that increases learners' effort, anxiety does not seem to be useful towards the overall process of learning foreign languages. Horwitz and Young (1991) found that students with high level of anxiety tended to overstudy despite the fact that their effort did not seem to yield success. Papi (2010) also disagreed with the facilitating effect of anxiety. He strongly objected to the idea that the facilitating effect of anxiety might increase learners' motivation to learn, but it is impossible to measure if it really has impact on learners' behaviour. Students' self-reported and intended effort might be different from their actual effort.

Some studies explored relationships between anxiety and proficiency, however, the results are not straightforward. While many researchers found that beginners were more anxious than advanced learners (e.g., Gardner, Smythe & Brunet, 1997; Gardner, Lalonde & Pierson, 1983), some studies did not find significant difference among learners in different level (e.g., Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Liu, 2006; Pichette, 2009). Toth (2010, 2011) situated the research among advanced FL learners and found that experience and proficiency are not always reliable predictors of anxiety. High proficiency does not confer to the sense of confidence. Instead, students with relatively high proficiency reported to feel stressed and uncomfortable in class.

Skill-specific second language anxiety also became the subject of interest for many scholars. Despite the fact that most earlier studies tended to emphasise classroom activities like speaking and listening because it seems to be the most anxiety provoking factors among FL learners (Horwitz et al., 1986; Steinberg and Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; Price, 1991, Mejjas et al., 1991). Hilleson (1996) investigated language anxiety in different skill areas and found that FL learners experienced anxiety in all four skills, not only speaking and listening (as cited in Matsuda & Gobel, p. 22, 2004). Some scholars argued that there are specific types of anxiety like reading anxiety (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999; Sellers, 2000) and writing anxiety (Cheng et al., 1999; Leki, 1999). Cheng et al. (1999) despite the specific categories of anxiety, low self-confidence seemed to be the general feeling shared by most anxious students.

Predictors of FLA have been investigated in order to find ways to relieve learners' anxiety. Chen and Chang (2004) found that English learning history, classroom learning characteristics, and developmental learning difficulties are accounted for English learning anxiety. Scholars also found the negative relationship between FL anxiety and learners' proficiency and performance/proficiency (e.g., Aida, 1994; Bailey, 1983; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b; Phillips, 1992). A large part of research on anxiety also found links with personality. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) found that more anxious learners tend to be perfectionist due to factors like fear of evaluation, higher personal performance standard, concern about errors and procrastination. Dewaele (2002a) focused on independent variables like extraversion, psychoticism and neuroticism and how it affected level of FLA in English.

Dewaele and Shan Ip (2013) found a relationship between Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity and FLA and found that Hong Kong students who were more

tolerant of second language ambiguity were less anxious and felt more proficient. Papi (2010) investigated the relationship between motivation and L2 anxiety. The findings suggested that students' ought-to L2 self makes them more anxious while students with ideal L2 self become less anxious in using and learning English.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) claimed that general anxiety and FLA are separate types of anxiety, giving the example of Anglophone learners in Canada who were anxious by nature but were not anxious in French L2 classroom. However, later studies showed a more nuanced picture. Dewaele (2002, 2013) found that both types of anxiety are not independent of each other, with scores of Neuroticism strongly linked to levels of FLA.

Some studies explored learners' anxiety towards foreign languages other than English and found that there was relatively high attrition rate due to the "non-cognate" nature of the language which became truly FL to students (e.g., Mills et al., 1987; Jorden & Walton, 1987). In Saito and Samimy's study (1996), American learners' of Japanese in three different instructional levels (beginning, intermediate and advanced) were found to have different scores in anxiety depending on their level. The researchers suggested that as the instructional level increased, learners tended to be more anxious. This result, however, is in contrast with MacIntyre and Gardner's study (1991) in which they claimed that "as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner" (p. 111). Therefore, Saito and Samimy concluded that the different result might be due to the languages that learners were taught, cognate or non-cognate.

Similar to research in motivation, FLA has also become the subject of interest to multilingual scholars too. Saito et al. (1999) investigated FLA of 383 American students who study French, Japanese or Russian using Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and the

Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito et al., 1999). Although the result showed the fluctuation of FLA across languages, there were some methodological issues as participants were from different grades and the language course was elective for some but compulsory for others.

Dewaele, Petrides and Furnham (2008) investigated levels of communicative anxiety (CA) across four languages among adult multilinguals and found significant negative correlations between levels of communicative anxiety and the number of languages known (p. 176). Dewaele (2010a) also found that learners had lower FLA levels if the languages they already knew belonged to the same linguistic family of the target language. Also, Dewaele (2007b) studied the effect of multiple psychological and sociobiographical variables on Flemish students' language grades in L1, L2, L3 and L4 and found the relationship between the number of languages known and level of FLA.

A similar result was also found in other studies (Dewaele, 2010a, 2010b; Dewaele et al., 2008; Thompson & Lee, 2012). Dewaele (2002, 2007a) and Rodriguez and Abreu (2003) investigated the stability of FLA among learners of simultaneously learned English and French. Dewaele (2002, 2007b) found that among Flemish high school learners of French L2 and English L3, significantly higher level of anxiety was found in French. In contrast, Rodriguez and Abreu (2003) did not find significant difference in FLCA scores between the two languages among 110 students in Venezuela. This was explained as the result of students' extensive training. A number of studies showed that the independent variables might not have the same effect on the L2 and L3 (Gardner & Tremblay, 1998; Lasagabaster, 2002, 2005; Dewaele, 2002a, 2005a; Dewaele, 2006). However, in his more recent work, Dewaele (2013) found that among multilingual students from London and Mallorca, FL classroom anxiety score were relatively stable across languages the students knew (L1 to L4).

Piniel (2006) compared 61 Hungarian students' FLA scores of two FLs, the first one acquired in elementary school (English and German), the second one was acquired in secondary school (French, German, Italian and English). The FLCAS was used to measure students' anxiety. The findings showed that anxiety levels were different between the first and the second FL learned.

Jin, de Bot, Keijzer (2015) investigated whether FLA varied across FLs. 146 first year Chinese university students' anxiety in English and Japanese, was tested twice over a two-month interval. Anxiety in Japanese gradually decreased over time while anxiety in English remained the same. The researchers noted that the improvement in students' Japanese proficiency probably explained the decrease in anxiety in Japanese as compared to less improvement in students' English proficiency. Another explanation for the decrease in Japanese anxiety was that the participants were studying Japanese major and for them English was just the second FL. Therefore, they were more motivated to study Japanese compared to longer studied English that anxiety level tended to be more stable.

Not only that different languages cause different level of anxiety among learners, the cultural background was also found to play an active part in learners' anxiety. Woodrow (2006) found that students' cultural background affects their levels of FLA. English language learners from Confucian Heritage Culture suffered more from FLA than other ethnic groups, however, she concluded that the students' higher anxiety level could probably result from a skill deficit or retrieval interference as well.

Scholars suggested that in order to create an environment where learners feel at ease to engage in language learning, it is important that excessive language anxiety be removed (Gardner et al., 1992; Horwitz, 2001). In Gardner's (1979) socio-educational

model of motivation that consists of four variable (social milieu, individual differences, L2 acquisition contexts and outcomes), anxiety is one of the most important sub-variables in individual differences because anxiety has inhibiting effect on learners' performance and impeding the process of L2 acquisition. Thus, in order to increase and sustain learners' motivation, it is inevitable to focus on FLA which is one of the closely connected variables to motivation.

2.8 International Posture

International Posture is the concept termed by Yashima (2002, Yashima et al., 2004) to explain Japanese students' attitudes towards and inclination to learn English. Since the concept of integrativeness was found unfit in the Japanese context, Yashima reframed this attitudinal orientation to predict motivated learning behavior that is more specific to Japan. It could be considered a shift from one ethnolinguistic group to a more global community at large with English language as belong to the international community (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013). International posture refers to 'interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and [...] openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures' (Yashima, 2002, p. 57). International posture is reflected by four aspects, which are intercultural friendship orientation, interest in international vocation/activities, interest in foreign affair, and intergroup approach/avoidance tendencies (ibid).

IP is also found to be linked to intercultural contact. Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008) conducted a comparative study of two groups of students who were studying at home and abroad. The results showed that learners who had experiences abroad or more exposure to native L2 had higher international posture. Similarly,

Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) also compared the effect of intercultural contact on L2 motivation between students from a Japanese-medium college and an international college in Japan. The researchers found that for Japanese-medium college, intercultural contact had no impact on IP, but IP strongly influenced both international and noninternational colleges on motivated learning behaviour. Aubrey and Nowlan confirmed the strong relationship between motivation and IP that IP is a key motivator for Japanese students regardless of the degree of intercultural contact.

Instead of studying abroad, Yashima (2013) suggested that creating an “imagined international community” in EFL classroom would help promote learners’ integration into other ethnolinguistic communities in order to save expense and time commitment that would be accessible only to the privileged few. Yashima proposed the use of a content-based curriculum as a way to create imagined community for learners who have no opportunity to go abroad or study in international colleges. Teachers can prepare the subjects that deal with global issues like the UN model and prompt students to discuss using English. She pointed out that the visualization of the futures self can help students develop international posture. Falout et al. (2013) also noted that communities of imagining can benefit students in promoting positive self-concept. Munezane (2013) also studied the effect of global English and motivation by using future ideal self activity like virtually participating in global community of specialists in their field to discuss controversial global issues so that learners could connect their English class with their ideal future selves. However, Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) commented that such methods would be difficult to simulate outside the real multicultural environment.

Hayashi (2013) noted that an aspect of language learning motivation that feature interest in the target language culture or intercultural orientation could be referred to by

terms like integrativeness, international posture or the ideal self. However, solely IP would not be adequate for learners to be motivated in EFL context where there are no immediate needs or specific goal. IP reflects both social and academic dimension of L2 motivation but it is just a vague outlook in EFL context that needs visible goal to get learners invest in learning.

International posture and motivation is closely related (Yashima, 2002; Johnson, 2013; Munezane, 2013). It was found that international posture correlated significantly with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Yashima, 2009). Ideal self was also found to correlate with IP (Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Yashima, 2009). International posture was described as one of learners' possible selves in Murray's (2011) study as learners have vision of themselves as participating in target language imagined communities. In order to achieve their goal, students had directed their motivation to make this goal a reality by implementing concrete plan and actions in self-access language learning and classroom-based instruction.

Kormos and Csizer (2008) investigated age-related differences on motivation and IP between three groups of learners—secondary, university and adult learners in Hungary and found that secondary students' interest in cultural products resulted in motivated behaviour while IP was present only in university students and adult learners. Nishida (2013) contended that classroom atmosphere will enhance learners' motivation and in turn will increase learners' interest in other countries, cultures and languages.

In the area of motivation research, international posture has been mentioned in connection to the growing role of English as an international language. For many learners of English, their motivation to learn could be described as orientation to an international outlook or IP (e.g., Ushioda, 2013), which might explain the close

relationship between motivation and IP. Murray (2011) found that IP represents learners' set of attitude that describes the self they hope to become—"a self, embracing a global identity" (Arnett, 2002).

As aforementioned, the concept of IP revolves around English as the language associate with international community where English is used in cross-cultural environment. Although English is the world's lingua franca, the idea of reaching out to people who speak different language from one's own might not be limited to English speakers. The increasing trend of multilingualism or multiple languages learning in many regions across the world brings about the awareness of intercultural communication/competence. International posture thus might not be specific to learners of English although the concept is commonly known as associated with English language learners.

International posture was found to closely link to Willingness to communicate (WTC). This is because contact experiences were likelier to be perceived as important among students with strong IP (e.g., Sampasivam & Clement, 2014). Yashima (2013) contended that higher level of international posture might lead to higher motivation to learn English and more willingness to communicate with dissimilar others.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented a historical overview of motivation and especially the studies of motivation in different contexts, with various interconnected agent and motivation to study multiple languages simultaneously. FLA and international posture were also discussed as they are the key variables being studied in connection with motivation. The following chapter on research methodology will present the

methodological approaches and the justification for the selection, context of study, participants, instruments, and data analysis.

2.10 Rationale and Research Questions

As the literature review showed that multiple language motivation has been under-researched, especially issues concerning complexity of multiple languages with English as one of the major factors affecting and interacting with motivation to learn other FLs. FLA and IP also played important role as it closely links to motivation. To investigate these cross-language relationships, research questions were defined as follows.

2.10.1 Research Questions

1. Are there any differences in terms of motivation and FLA across languages among simultaneous language learners?
2. Are there any significant differences between motivation, FLA and international posture among language specialist learners and English-medium business students?
3. What is the dynamic interplay across languages between motivation, FLA and international posture of the multiple language learners?

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological approach and research design used to explore the research questions. The mixed-method was chosen for the study. The first section discusses the approach and the researcher's justification for the selection as appropriate for the nature of motivation research. The following sections discuss context of the study, participants, instruments and data analysis respectively.

3.2 Research Design

Choosing the research paradigm is very important because the nature of the research might need particular ways of data collection and analyses to bring out the most precise answers to the research question; as Li Wei (2008) stated, the choice of methods is "central to a study and will depend on theoretical ideas concerning the phenomena we are asking questions about" (p. 19). With respect to the research questions of the present study, the nature of motivation studies seems to put the weigh on the quantitative side due to widespread use of motivation scales and other related factors. However, since this research aims to explore the dynamic nature of motivation as well, qualitative data would be necessary so as to provide the flow of events and discover the missing pieces of the whole jigsaw of motivation and its development during transition and over a period of time.

As mentioned earlier, both quantitative and qualitative methods have their own strengths and weaknesses, so using mixed methods in the current study helps improve the validity of the research by increasing strengths and eliminating weaknesses (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 45). Mixed methods are very appropriate for multi-level analysis of

complex issues as it “allows investigators to obtain data about both the individual and the broader societal context” (ibid). Therefore, mixed methods will be used in the current research as it helps capture the complexity of the real world of students’ motivation.

The longitudinal approach in the current research is both quantitative- and qualitative. A simultaneous cross-sectional study is employed in order to achieve generalizability by collecting data from a large sample size of students from year one to year four. I attempted to recruit as many participants as possible who simultaneously learned more than two FLs. Although the number of participants ($N = 356$) is not very large, there are two or more sets of scores for each language they knew. Thus, there was sufficient data to be processed. The use of quantitative approach was appropriate so as to find trends and patterns.

On the other hand, the panel study focuses on five students who agreed to participate in a questionnaire data collection from 2012 to 2014. It was expected that there would be some patterns of changes over the period of three years as the students progressed in their studies. The 5 participants involved in the longitudinal panel study were asked to do the repeated surveys. Although the number of participants in panel study was too small for statistical tests, the objective of this panel study was to observe individual changes in motivation scores.

While the first two longitudinal studies are quantitative-based using questionnaires, the last one is qualitative-based using a retrospective longitudinal study. Students were interviewed and asked to recollect their experiences of language learning in the past. Retrospective interview were used in both cross-sectional and panel study to provide students personal attitudes towards FL learning. Despite weaknesses of

retrospective interview concerning accuracy of the data, the current study avoided such problems by focusing on students' attitudes and opinions towards learning FLs rather than on the exact detail of their experiences. Moreover, the researcher avoided directly stating the research topic to the interviewees and simply talked about their learning experiences in a conversational tone so as to obtain as honest answer as possible. Students were asked general questions about their learning experiences, goals and future plans and then the researcher elaborated on topic as opportunities rose. Interviewees were free to talk about their feeling, attitudes, and experience without being interrupted by the researcher. The researcher did not tell the interviewee when to stop, so the interviews took place approximately around 30 to 60 minutes at interviewees' wish.

Interview data from five students in the panel study were also included in the major interview of the cross-sectional group making the total number of 14 interviewees. Students from both language specialist and business majors who knew different languages were interviewed. The number of interviews was based on Brannen and Nilsen's (2011) criteria: when identification of new themes reached the state of 'saturation', collecting more data become unnecessary.

3.3 Methods in Motivation Research

3.3.1 Quantitative Approach

To begin with, the quantitative approach has been widely used in motivation studies in an attempt to find "hard evidence" (Dörnyei, 2007) of this complex construct. Such linear model using scales and numbers to find the answer for the research questions is convenient, cost- and time-efficient. Very often the quantitative approach is found to be favourable among scholars because it is "systematic, rigorous, focused, and

tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 34). The prominent characteristic of this approach is the use of numerical data, which are interpreted to “explain phenomenon, find relationships between variables and identify trends and patterns” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 26). The quantitative approach is believed to bring about “objective reality by standardizing research procedures to ensure that they remain stable across investigators and subjects” (p. 28). Since it can deal with data in large volumes, the results are believed to represent the population that has been researched and thus provide some degree of generalizability.

Generalizability might be the major strength of using quantitative approach because a large enough sample helps reflect “commonalities that exist in the data (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 21), however, using quantitative approach also has some drawbacks. Although this method aims to be as objective as possible as in natural science, Moyer noted that objective or empirical as it seems, but it is still “a subjective process carried out by the researcher” (2008, p. 27) because without context, numbers do not have any meaning. Researchers need to interpret the data based on their own view and experience. Moreover, since quantitative studies generally rely on a large-scale representative sample of data, it misses in-depth information because it focuses on commonalities of groups and variables rather than individual case study (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 35). Although a quantitative approach provides researchers with “hard evidence”, when the topic of the study deals with complex systems or dynamic nature of the subject of study, the quantitative approach is found insufficient; as Brannen (2005) described quantitative data as “overly simplistic, decontextualized, reductionist in terms of its generalizations, and failing to capture the meanings that actors attach to their lives and circumstance” (p. 7).

There are several reasons why purely quantitative-based studies are not enough for motivation studies. Firstly, according to Dörnyei (2007), this approach is not very sensitive to capture dynamic or complex phenomena especially in social science where the subjects of study are human beings whose within and outside variation are different across time and context (p. 35). Nishida (2013) also remarked about using surveys in motivation research as being limited by the scales developed by researchers. As it uses a linear model to investigate relationships between variables, it can capture only the snapshot of a phenomenon and will fail to present the fluctuation of the ongoing process. Ushioda (2009) noted that,

A problem with the traditional computational models of motivation that have dominated the field is that they seek to make generalizable predictions about what kinds of motivation might lead to what kinds of learning behavior in what kinds of context, and thus to identify what kinds of pedagogical intervention might be needed to change maladaptive patterns of motivation and so improve learning behaviours and outcomes (p. 218).

3.3.2 Qualitative Approach

Although qualitative studies could not provide so called “hard evidence” as in the case of a quantitative approach, it offers rich and in-depth information derived from a variety of methods. Moyer (2008) elaborated the nature of qualitative research as “concerned with gathering and analyzing all sorts of data that are informative” (p.27), for example, observational data, interviews, language interactions. A qualitative approach does not deal with number; the focus on the life of individual is its essence.

The qualitative approach presents many advantages. Firstly, its emergent research design means that the research is open and flexible for as long as possible. This is because, as Moyer (2008) noted, “nothing is taken as predefined” (p. 27). The researchers have opportunities to respond to “new details or openings that may emerge during the process of investigation” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 37). Moreover, from the small sample size, it is possible to gain an insider perspective, which in a way helps “making sense of highly complex situations (ibid, p. 39). Moyer (2008) explained that context is central to qualitative work where the experience is more important than a set of separate variables (p. 27). This is what Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) pointed out as the advantages of utilizing the qualitative approach for motivation studies: it is suitable for exploring the complexity of interactions between social, cultural and psychological factors.

Despite the exploratory nature and the rich information derived from the qualitative approach, there are also some drawbacks. The insider perspectives are achieved at the expense of generalizability. Moreover, the role of the researcher is also questioned because the researcher’s personal biases and idiosyncrasies might influence the result and risk the objectivity of the research (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 35).

3.3.3 Mixed Method

While motivation studies are traditionally based on quantitative approaches, this study combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to achieve concrete and rich information. The benefits of using mixed methods are well-known. Miles and Huberman (1994) observed that by using mixed method, the researchers are able to avoid “polarization, polemics and life at the extremes” (p. 310). Moreover, Dörnyei (2007) explained that “the strengths of one method can be utilized to overcome

the weaknesses of another method used in the study” (p. 45). It could be said that mixed methods brings out the best of both paradigms, is appropriate for multi-layered analysis, improves validity and can reach larger audiences. As both quantitative and qualitative approaches have their own strengths and weaknesses, it is necessary to discuss the characteristics of each approach.

3.3.4 Longitudinal Studies

Although the linear model has been popular in the field of motivation research, it is criticized as providing only a snapshot of motivation while in reality, students’ motivation has undergone changes at many levels—class, term and year. As motivation is in a state of flux, a longer period will show the ebb and flow of students’ motivation, which might be affected by various factors. Ushioda justified the use of the longitudinal approach in motivation study as allowing researchers to “see motivation not as a cause or the product of specific learning experiences but rather an on-going process” (Ushioda, 2001, p. 102). According to Dörnyei (2007), the primary purposes of longitudinal design are “to describe patterns of change, and to explain causal relationships” (p. 79).

The major characteristic of longitudinal design is collecting data over a period of time. Menard (2002) described the design of longitudinal research as: 1) collecting data from at least two distinct time periods, 2) drawing on the same or comparable cases or subjects, and 3) comparing the data between periods. There are many types of longitudinal study but in this study, three are employed: 1) simultaneous cross-sectional study, 2) panel study, and 3) retrospective longitudinal study.

3.3.5 Retrospective Interview

Retrospective interview is one of the important tools. As the students were interviewed and asked to recollect their past experience to double check with the quantitative results, it was expected that this would provide a more accurate account as a triangulation technique. Dörnyei suggested that there is also a kind of longitudinal study called “retrospective longitudinal studies” (2007, p. 84) that offer the researcher to collect the data on past events or behaviour. With this type of method, the data “are gathered during a single investigation in which respondents are asked to think back and answer questions about the past” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 84).

However, the method also has many weaknesses that may result in lower reliability of the research as Dörnyei noted, “retrospective data tends to be more unreliable than prospective data” (2007, p. 84). First, the study may be in danger of being simplified or selective. According to Dörnyei, “one of the weaknesses of retrospective research is that the account may be omitted, suppressed or simply wrong in some important details” (ibid). It is thus likely that the researcher is selective of data which would serve the themes only. There may also be some issues that do not fit into the theme and are not mentioned by the researcher.

Second, retrospective data is often questioned in terms of its accuracy and correctness. Dörnyei pointed out that “past retrospective research has revealed that the quality of the recollectable data can be very uneven” (2007, p. 84). This method would be appropriate if the participants were asked to recall the events or experience of which the memory was still fresh in their mind. One suggestion about the retrospective interview is that, “We need to try and keep the interval between the task and the retrospective interview as short as possible...the time lapse should not exceed two

days” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 149). Due to the length of interval with this kind of interview, it is also suggested of data in retrospective investigation that “as much as 50 per cent of the responses may be incorrect or inaccurate in some way” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 84).

Despite the abovementioned risks of using retrospective interview, it was believed that triangulation would help reduce such risks. Together with “hard evidence” from quantitative data, retrospective interviews would help in interpreting and explaining changes occurring at each time point of the quantitative data collection.

3.3.6 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a very common tool used in applied linguistics as it is a quick, efficient and effective way to collect data. Dörnyei (2006) suggested that questionnaires help finding “answers to questions in a systematic and disciplined manner” (p. 101). Also a questionnaire is a convenient tool for researchers as it is “easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processible” (ibid, p. 101-102). A questionnaire can yield three types of data about the respondents, namely, factual questions, behavioural questions and attitudinal questions.

The strengths of questionnaires have been discussed, indicating them as one of the most reliable and effective tools. Dörnyei (2007) stressed three major advantages of questionnaires as time- and cost-effective, easy to process the data, and providing respondents anonymity if needed (p. 115). With the anonymity afforded by questionnaires, Nortier remarked that, for the respondents, this relative anonymity might make them “feel more free when they are not talking in front of an interviewer who they may want to please with socially desirable answers” (2008, p. 39). It also reduces halo

effect on both sides as interviewers and interviewee are not influenced by certain characteristics of the person that might lead to overall positive or negative directions (Coolican, 2014).

However, there are some drawbacks in using questionnaires as well. Dörnyei (2007) pointed out that an ill-constructed questionnaire might result in unreliable and invalid data. Moreover, due to the simple and straightforward nature of the questionnaire, it cannot dig deep into the issues or to gain rich information (ibid). Researchers also have to consider about the time respondents are willing to spend on a questionnaire, which is rather short. So, researchers cannot afford long questionnaires, which is another limitation that trades off against the depth of investigation.

3.3.7 Interview

Just as a questionnaire is a strong tool for quantitative research, interview is an effective way to gain rich information and insight in participants' practices. Very often, the interview is used as additive in quantitative approach for triangulation purposes, as Codo (2008, p. 162) suggested, "The opinions expressed by speakers are put side by side with other types of data." Interview is important for clarification of numerical data as well as informative because "[t]he beliefs and attitudes expressed by interviewees are essential to researchers' interpretive processes" (Codo, 2008, p. 162).

The nature of interview is suitable for exploratory research in that the participants' experience can widen the scope of our understanding. Interview is needed for "in-depth knowledge of particular context or [to] seek to answer complex questions" (Codo, 2008, p. 162). Dörnyei suggested that interview is "an effective way of exploring new, uncharted areas" (2007, p. 39). In studies that aim to explore people's

attitudes, “interview data may also be conceptualized as a means to open up research to the researched and give them a voice” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 39).

Despite its rich and insightful information, there are some issues that researchers have to be careful when using interview in their studies. The participants may be in the danger of being too subjective. Codo (2008) said that the issue of truth might be a problem when interviewees want to please the researcher, “constrained by interview situation from expression their views, or aim to project a given image for themselves or their community” (p. 162). According to Dörnyei, there are some problems relating to the use of interview in research. The first one is that the interview format does not allow anonymity, thus the interviewees may try to display themselves in a better than real light or they may be too shy to articulate sufficient data (2007, pp. 143-144). Li Wei and Zhu Hua noted that “the data may be less representative and generalizations may be less clear, and that data collection and interpretation may be subject to researchers’ positions and backgrounds” (2011, p. 502).

For interview data, thematic data analysis was employed. Braun and Clarke (2006) characterized thematic data analysis as a practice of searching for recurrent patterns or, in other words, systematically identifying topics through text. It is crucial that researchers using this type of analysis must have some conceptual understanding of the subject matter in order to develop into themes, concepts and categories. This method of analysis contains both inductive and deductive process whereby induction primarily creates themes and deduction verifies them.

3.4 The Context of the Study

This study was conducted at Naresuan University, a government-sponsored university in the northern part of Thailand. It was first established in 1967 as a branch of the College of Education but was upgraded to university status in 1974. There are 16 faculties organized in three thematic clusters, Health Sciences, Social Sciences and Science and Technology. Apart from these faculties, in 2001 the Council of Naresuan University agreed to establish Naresuan University International College (NUIC) as an attempt to set itself as an international learning centre. The new international college, although, being a part of Naresuan University, is run by its own committees.

This research took place at the Faculty of Humanities and Naresuan University International College (NUIC). Both schools offer four-year programs for undergraduates. The faculty of Humanities has its courses taught in Thai whereas NUIC is an English-medium college. Most students at the faculty of Humanities are language specialist students who study either Eastern or Western languages whereas NUIC specialises in business and law. It could be said that students in both groups are similar in that they are familiar with foreign languages.

The subjects in the current study are language students from the faculty of Humanities and NUIC. Both groups are required to study additional languages, especially the language outside their major in the case of language specialist students. For both groups of students, the most popular additional languages are Chinese, Japanese and Korean.

Teaching techniques and instructors are different between these schools. Humanities students are taught mostly by Thai teachers with Thai as the language of instruction. They have limited contact with foreign teachers only in oral or conversation

class. The teaching methodology, very often, is teacher-based and students tend to have serious endeavor to learn the language of their major. A teacher I talked to remarked that they have to improve all skills because it was what future employers expected from them. It could be said that the ultimate goal of learning languages is to achieve good grades because it would directly affect their future career.

In contrast, students from NUIC have a more relaxed atmosphere in their language class and all language teachers are native speakers. Speaking in Thai is not allowed in the college. Teachers use both English and L3 in teaching. In an interview with a native Japanese teacher from NUIC, she said that although students are not highly proficient in English, they are familiar with English and can understand the lesson well. She also used to teach at the Faculty of Humanities. She thus informed me how these groups of students differ. First of all, the nature of the courses at Humanities is tougher. Language students are required to enroll in grammar, culture and history of that particular language, while NUIC students study communicative language and are encouraged to participate in discussion. Secondly, language students take their language class very seriously whereas NUIC students feel that language class is the place where they can relax and have fun compared to their major subjects that are difficult and taught in L2 English.

3.5 The Participants of the Study

The participants in this study are Thai students at Naresuan University. All of them are native speakers of Thai who study on undergraduate programmes. English is judged as their second language based on the order of languages learned. According to Cenoz's (2001) pattern of language acquisition in a formal learning context, the participants are L1→L2→L3 with all languages acquired consecutively with English as

the first FL taught in primary schools. To make it clear, this study will refer to Thai as L1, English L2 and additional language L3.

3.5.1 Questionnaire Participants

Cross-sectional

The subjects were divided into two groups. The first group consists of language students in the faculty of Humanities who study FLs. Thai was the language of instruction. The selected participants studied English, Chinese, Japanese and Korean as their major subject. They are also required to study another FL for at least six courses (18 credits).

The other group of participants consists of students who study at NUIC (English-medium college). The students selected for this research were studying Tourism Management, Human Resource Management or English for Business because students in these majors are required to study an additional language, with Chinese, Japanese and Korean on offer. Although they were part of English programme, eighty percent of the students are Thai. International students were not included in this study. The details of participants are shown in table 3.1-3.3.

Table 3.1 Participants' Gender, Age, Faculty and Language Learned

Gender	Age	Faculty	Language
Male = 59 (17%)	From 18 to 30	Humanities = 193 (54%)	English = 356
Female = 297 (83%)	Mean age = 20.05	NUIC = 163 (46%)	Chinese= 157
		Total = 356	Japanese = 93
			Korean = 84

Table 3.2 Number of Humanities and NUIC students who know each language

		Humanities	NUIC
Language	English	193	163
	Chinese	92	65
	Japanese	37	56
	Korean	43	41

Table 3.3 Dataset showing the number of participants involved in each type of study

Type of study	Number of participants		
	Language students	Business students	Total
Cross-sectional	193	163	356
Semi-structured interviews	12	2	14
Panel study (the same participants from the interviews)	3	2	5

Case Studies

There were five participants involved in a longitudinal study, one male and four female. All of them were Thai students aged between 18 and 22. At the time of contact, one student was in the first year, three in the second year and one in the third year. Four students were studying language majors: English (2), Chinese (1) and Japanese (1); and one student was from NUIC. Data were collected at three time points from January 2012 to April 2014 in order to observe the pattern of changes. At time point 3, students were interviewed and asked about their language learning situation in the past three years.

3.5.2 Interview Participants

There are two groups of interviewees involved in this study. The first group was drawn from questionnaire participants who left contact information at the end of the questionnaire indicating that they were willing be involved in an interview session. In order to help interpret quantitative data, interviews were organized after the questionnaire session was completed. The respondents who agreed to participate in an interview session left their contact information at the end of the questionnaire.

The other group was former multiple language learners who are now in a language professional career. The recruitment of this group was by personal contact and snowballing techniques. All interviewees were asked to talk about their language learning experiences and their language-related career. For the interviewees in professions, a retrospective qualitative interview was used to collect data across the extended period of their lives. Chamberlayne et al. (2000) viewed this method as emerging from biographical and autobiographical methods of enquiry in applied linguistics and the social sciences that explore the pattern over the period of years throughout transition to new life phase and changing experience.

3.6 Contacting the Participants

The researcher contacted the Office of Registrar, Naresuan University, in August 2012 asking them to send the online questionnaire to the intended participants via the registrar system. However, the request was declined and the researcher was informed that the E-Registrar system could not be used for any purposes other than their usual services. After being rejected by the Office of Registrar, the researcher directly contacted the Faculty of Humanities and NUIC in December 2012 by sending letters

asking for permission to distribute an online questionnaire to students via the registry system. The request was granted by the Faculty of Humanities. The Academic Service of the faculty was willing to help and a private message was sent via the registry system to around 550 students who were studying in English, Chinese, Japanese and Korean majors. The message contained a link to the online questionnaire and asked students to take part in research on FL learning experience.

Emails were sent to nine NUIC teachers who taught in ten different courses. Four teachers responded to the request and sent the link to the online questionnaire to their students.

3.7 Research Instruments

3.7.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaire Construction

The initial questionnaire was designed to gain information about the students' background, their motivation, anxiety and international posture scores for each language that they study (see Appendix A). There are two types of questionnaire questions—closed-ended and open-ended (Dörnyei, 2007). This study used both types of questions. The structure of the questionnaire is divided into three main sections. The first two sections are closed-ended. The first section consisted of questions about demographic information like gender, age, year of study, number of languages known etc. The second section contained five-point Likert scales containing items to measure students' motivation, anxiety and international posture. The last section consisted of open-ended question asking students to write about their experience in FL learning. All the

questions were translated into Thai to avoid communication problems. Table 3.2 showed the format and purpose of questions in each section.

Table 3.4 Questionnaire Scales and Number of Items per Scale

Scale	Number of items
1. Demographic information	8
2. Ideal L2 self	12
3. Ought-to L2 self	7
4. Foreign language anxiety	6
5. International posture	20
Total	53

Materials

For this study, the participants completed a total of 53 questions but they had to answer the same set of 25 questions for each additional language they knew. Materials included the following variables; ideal self and ought-to self (from Dörnyei, 2005), FLA (from Woodrow, 2006) and international posture (from Yashima, 2002). Five-point Likert scales were used. The internal consistency (Cronbach's α) is indicated in parentheses in overall scores and for each language.

1. Ideal self (12 items, Cronbach's α : English = .844, French = .859 , Chinese = .824, Japanese = .848, Korean = .784): for example, *I can imagine myself as someone who is able to speak foreign language(s)*. Ought to self (7 items, Cronbach's α : English = .829, French = .749, Chinese = .822, Japanese = .786, Korean = .807): for example, *I have to study foreign language(s), because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.*

2. Foreign Language Anxiety (6 items, Cronbach's α : English = .933, French = .912, Chinese = .910, Japanese = .928, Korean = .910), for example, *Taking part in conversation out of class with native speaker.*
3. International posture (20 items, Cronbach's α = .66), for example, *I want to make friends with international students studying in Thailand.*

Comments at the End of the Questionnaire

Some researchers regard comments or open questions as a qualitative data while some described them as “quasi-qualitative” (O’Cathain & Thomas, 2004). However, the weaknesses of this type of data are its lack of some key strength in qualitative research, a lack of attention to context and a lack of conceptual richness because the answers might be in a few sentences. Despite all its drawbacks, the researcher decided to include open questions at the end of the questionnaire because some students might want to share their opinion and experience but did not want to be involved in an interview session.

Comments given by 133 out of 356 respondents (37%) varied in length from short sentences to a 238 word narrative. Some of them were eager to write down their experience, feeling, attitudes and needs in the provided space. Through written text, the students might feel less pressure in giving a more honest answer. O’Cathain and Thomas (ibid) also stated that the open questions “allow respondents to write whatever they want in their own words, with little structure imposed by the researcher”. Therefore, students’ comments seemed to be an appropriate tool to further investigate interesting points arising from the questionnaire in a follow-up interview.

3.7.2 Interview

Semi-structured interview was employed in order to gain insight about the dynamic nature of motivation and its relationship to the social context, as stated in Ushioda's person-in-context view. The semi-structured interview is suitable for situations when "the researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon or domain in question" and is capable of developing the broad question about the topic in advance (2007, p. 136).

Preliminary Interviews

Before the research design, there were preliminary interviews with teachers of Chinese, Japanese and Korean. This was to help me get the whole picture of the environment in each language classroom and gain insight into teachers' perspectives towards their own teaching and their students.

Interview Questions

Feedback and quantitative results were used to shape the interview questions. Nortier's "Types and Sources of Bilingual Data" (2008, p. 39), was used as a guideline to form the questions relating to interviewee's language profile: language history, language choice, language dominance and language attitude (See APPENDIX C). Then the researcher asked questions relating to their motivations, anxiety and international posture as the opportunity arose.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in January 2012 with the help of four teachers sending the link of online questionnaire to students in their class. One hundred and thirty students responded to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was reworded after getting feedback from the students. For example, the item *I can imagine myself as*

someone who is able to speak FL(s). When translated into Thai, it is awkward and redundant to keep the word “can” as in the original version because the meaning in Thai would be the same to say that you “imagine” or “can imagine”. The later version thus was translated as I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak FL(s). Some items have been removed, for example, self-rated language proficiency and order of language acquired as they were not relevant to the analysis. The new version of the questionnaire was launch at a different URL which was more user-friendly and easier to read than the first version. Some data from the pilot study has been used in the longitudinal study. Five students gave their name, email address and contact number, so the researcher was able to contact them again at the second and third data collection points.

3.8 Procedure

3.8.1 Questionnaire

The online questionnaire was administered to students of Humanities and NUIC via the E-Registrar system and an email sent by their teachers who agreed to help. The students completed the questionnaire during the first term of the academic year 2013/2014. The questionnaire took about 15 minutes to complete. Of the 398 questionnaires, only 356 were used because some students submitted the questionnaire more than once. After preparing the data in Excel, duplications were deleted.

3.8.2 Interview

After the questionnaires were collected and analysed using SPSS 21, there were interviews with students who were willing to participate. Not only were the interviewees asked to clarify some interesting trends in the quantitative data, they were

also asked to produce a retrospective narrative about their language learning experiences in every FL they have studied. Changes in perceptions of experiences were noted.

3.8.3 Case studies

Five students were contacted after the pilot study, during 2012. They were contacted again in 2013 and 2014 and were asked to complete the same questionnaire. On the last data collection, these five students were interviewed about their past language learning experiences and how their motivations and anxiety had shifted during each stage of their learning. Then, the scores from the three times point were plotted on graphs. A Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to compute the scores between each time point. Interviews were read and reread to find connections and explain the graph.

3.9 Data Analysis

3.9.1 Quantitative Data Analyses

A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011) confirmed that the data were normally distributed. Then a series of t-tests were computed to find the differences between two groups of students from the Faculties of Humanities and NUIC. One-way ANOVA were computed to find the relationship between sociobiographical factors and dependent variables. Bonferroni corrections were used to avoid type I error in multiple comparisons (Curtin & Schulz, 1998).

To investigate research question 1, a one-way ANOVA was computed with scores of ideal self, ought-to self and FLA in each language were computed. For research question 2, multiple t-tests were computed to compare the mean differences of

each language between the two groups of students, Humanities and NUIC. Research question 3 was examined using a series of Pearson correlations.

3.9.2 Qualitative Data Analyses

The recorded spoken data were coded and themes determined to find recurring temporal patterns. Since the interviews were conducted in the Thai language, the data were taped, analysed and partially transcribed so as to save time. Dörnyei (2006) maintained that “where the qualitative component is of secondary importance and is mainly intended to provide additional illustration or clarification, it may not be essential to transcribe every interview and, instead, we can carry out a tape analysis” (pp. 248-9). After partial transcription, I translated the interview in English.

The data for thematic analysis was processed with help of NVivo. In order to allow themes to emerge from data, the record was replayed and I took note of major issues. Partial transcription of the interviews was then imported into NVivo, coded and nodes and proto-themes created. After re-examining the text closely, themes were constructed and reported. There were nine major themes—four under the topic of ideal self and five for ought-to self. Issues relating to ideal self are *international language*, *integrativeness*, *job opportunities/financial rewards* and *language of students’ own choice*. For ought-to self, topic identified are *examination*, *competition in employment*, *family influence*, *peer pressure* and *desire to quit studying the language*.

3.10 Summary

In this chapter, I have described the methodology used in the current study. The mixed method design consisted of cross-sectional data collection, longitudinal case

studies of five students and interviews of students who studied various languages both from the Faculty of Humanities and NUIC. In the next chapter, I present the quantitative result derived from the cross-sectional data collection from students from year one to year four.

Chapter 4: Quantitative Analyses

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the results of the statistical analyses of the data. Firstly, scores for ideal self, ought-to self and anxiety will be compared for each language—first, the overall score for each language, and then within three separate groups of students who simultaneously learned Chinese, Korean and Japanese. One-way ANOVAs will be used for the overall scores, while the t-tests will be used for in-group comparison. Then, multiple t-test will be employed to explore the differences across languages between Humanities and NUIC students. Finally, Pearson correlations will be used to find the relationship between international posture, motivation and anxiety in order to find out which language motivation and anxiety scores might influence learners' IP.

4.2 Sample Characteristics

A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011) and a visual inspection of their histogram and box plots showed that the scores were approximately normally distributed for the samples, with a skewness of $-.681$ ($SE = .131$) and kurtosis of 1.118 ($SE = .261$) for English ideal self, $-.765$ ($SE = .194$), 1.223 ($SE = .385$) for Chinese, $-.231$ ($SE = .263$), $-.450$ ($SE = .520$) for Korean, and $-.561$ ($SE = .250$), $.685$ ($SE = .495$) for Japanese.

In terms of ought-to self, the skewness is $-.630$ ($SE = .131$) and kurtosis of $-.119$ ($SE = .261$) for English ought-to self, $-.433$ ($SE = .194$), $-.298$ ($SE = .395$) for Chinese, $-.629$ ($SE = .263$), $.193$ ($SE = .520$) for Korean, and $-.140$ ($SE = .250$), $-.734$ ($SE = .495$) for Japanese ought-to self.

A skewness and kurtosis of FLA are .136 (SE=.131) and -.625 (SE=.261) for English, .012(SE=.194), -.611 (SE=.385) for Chinese, .137 (SE=.263), -.601 (SE=.520) for Korean, and -.162 (SE=.250), -.805 (SE=.495) for Japanese FLA. A Levene's test verified the equality of variances in the samples (homogeneity of variance) ($p < .05$)

Figure 4.1 Box plot showing normal distribution of the samples (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012).

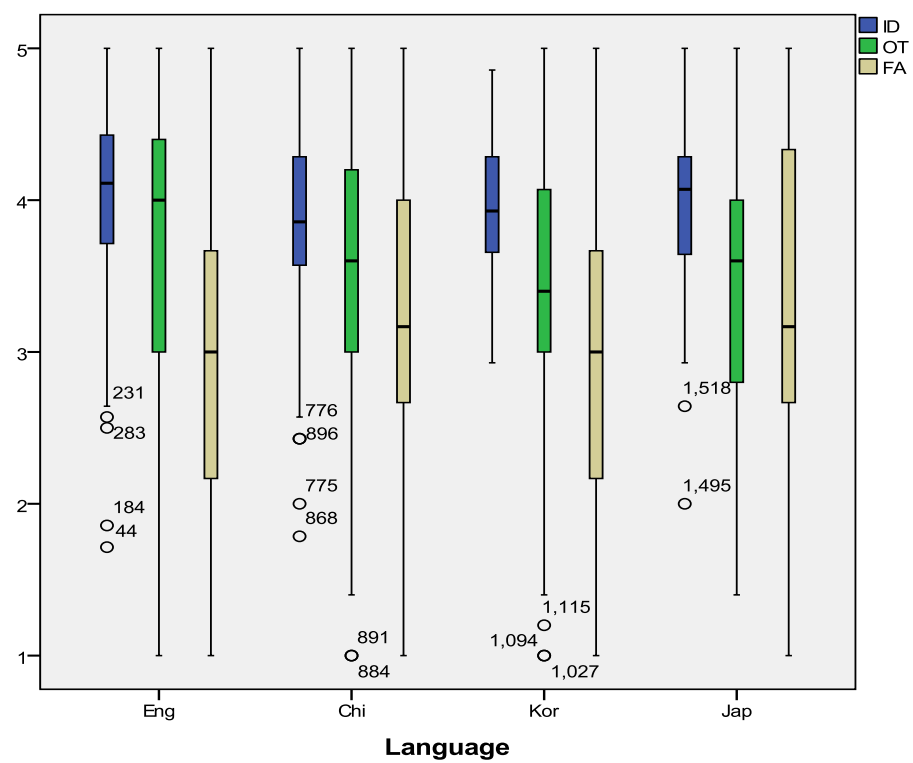


Figure 4.2 Bell curve showing normal distribution of the sample’s ideal self

Figure 4.3 Bell curve showing normal distribution of the sample’s ought-to self

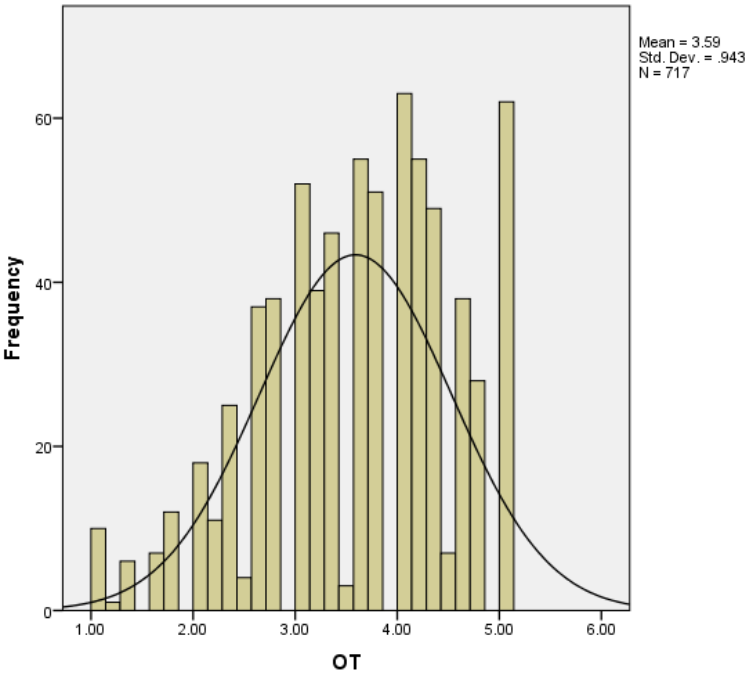
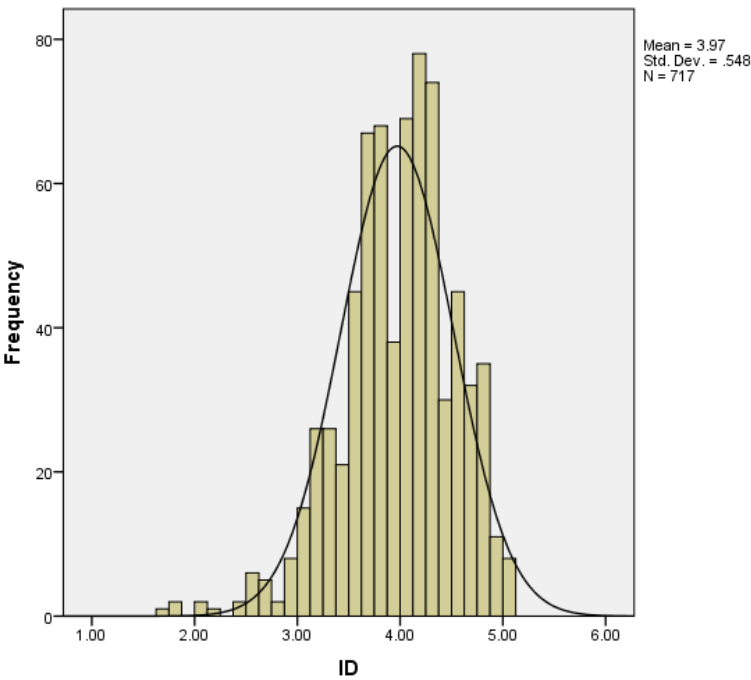
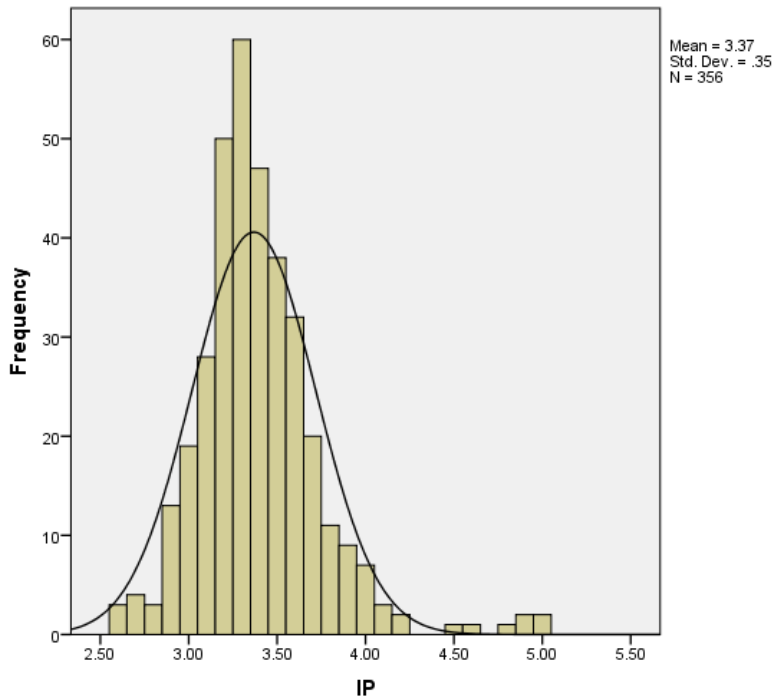
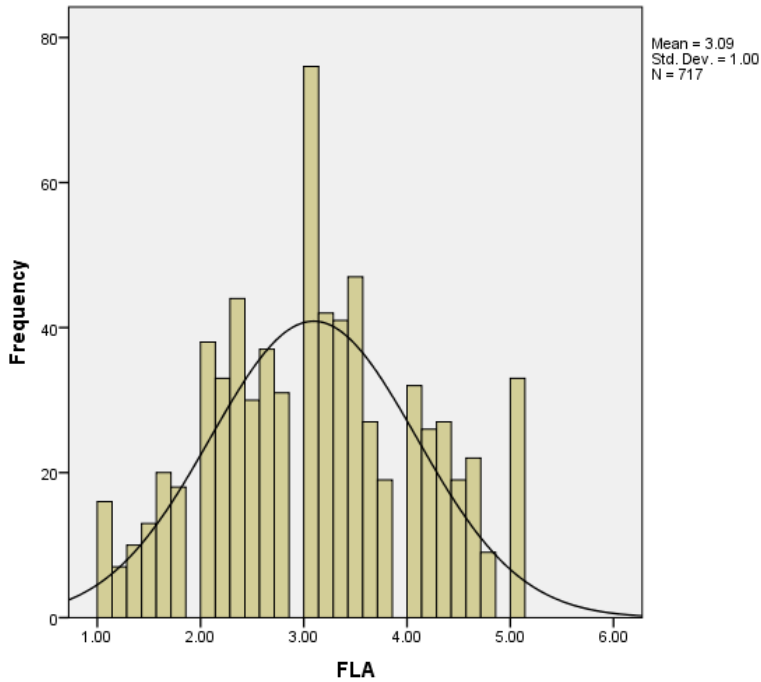


Figure 4.4 Bell curve showing normal distribution of the sample's FLA

.5 Bell curve showing normal distribution of the sample's International Posture



4.3 Motivation and Anxiety across Languages

RQ1: Are there any differences in terms of motivations and foreign language anxiety across languages among multiple language learners?

H₀ There is no significant difference in ideal self, ought-to self and FLA across languages.

H₁ There are significant differences in ideal self, ought-to self and FLA across languages.

To examine if there were significant differences between English and other languages, a one way ANOVA was computed for each variable examined in this study. The results suggested there were significant differences in all three dependent variables across languages (see table 4.1 - 4.3), namely, ideal self, ought-to self and FLA. A series of paired sample t-tests were also conducted to compare whether the result will be the same for simultaneous learners of two foreign languages. Bonferroni correction was used to avoid type I error. For the five comparisons, the alpha level was set at $p < 0.01$ for each of the five significant tests, to provide the same level of protection as .05 for a single significant test, $(1-.01)^5 = (1-.05)$. The results will be presented separately for each pair of languages in **tables 4.4 - 4.6** (English and Chinese, English and Korean, and English and Japanese).

4.3.1 Ideal Self

First, when comparing the overall scores of each language, ideal self scores were found to be significantly different between languages ($p < .001$), English ($M = 4.06$, SD

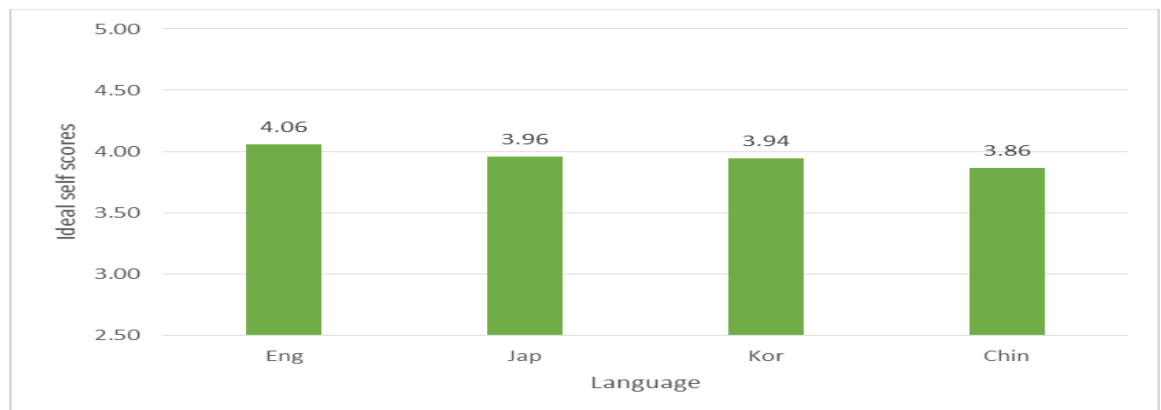
Figure 4.6 Mean Scores of Ideal Self across Languages

= 0.54), Chinese (M = 3.86, SD = 0.56), Korean (M = 3.94, SD = 0.55), and Japanese (M = 3.99, SD = 0.54), $F(4, 712) = 5.273$, $p < 0.05$. The effect size was small ($\eta^2 = 0.022$). The Bonferroni post hoc tests showed that English and Chinese was the only significant difference. English ideal self score was significantly higher than Chinese, $p < .05$. As shown in table 4.1, Chinese ideal self score is significantly lower than English.

Table 4.1 Ideal self across languages

Language	(n)	Mean(SD)
English	348	4.06 (.54)
Chinese	157	3.86 (.56)
Korean	84	3.94 (.55)
Japanese	93	3.99 (.54)

* $p < .05$



The figure 4.5 suggested these top three languages highest score highest in ideal self for English, Japanese and Korean respectively.

4.3.2 Ought-to Self

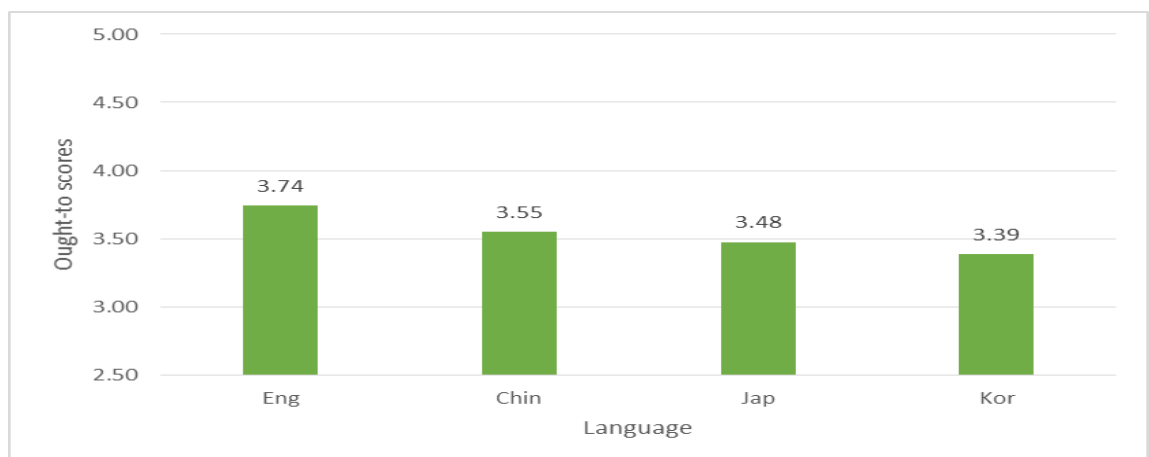
Regarding the ought-to self scores, there was significant differences between languages. English still had the highest scores. Bonferroni post hoc tests showed that there was significant difference between English and Korean ought-to self ($p < .002$). For the other two Asian languages (Chinese and Japanese), the scores did not differ significantly, English ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 0.94$), Chinese ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 0.94$), Korean ($M = 3.39$, $SD = 0.93$), and Japanese ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.84$), $F(4, 712) = 4.895$, $p < 0.05$. The effect size was small ($\eta^2 = 0.021$). See **table 4.2** and **figure 4.6**.

Table 4.2 Ought-to self across languages

Language	(n)	Mean(SD)
English	348	3.74 (.94)
Chinese	157	3.55 (.94)
Korean	84	3.39 (.93)
Japanese	93	3.48 (.84)

* $p < .05$

Figure 4.7 Mean Scores of Ought-to Self across Languages



4.3.3 FLA

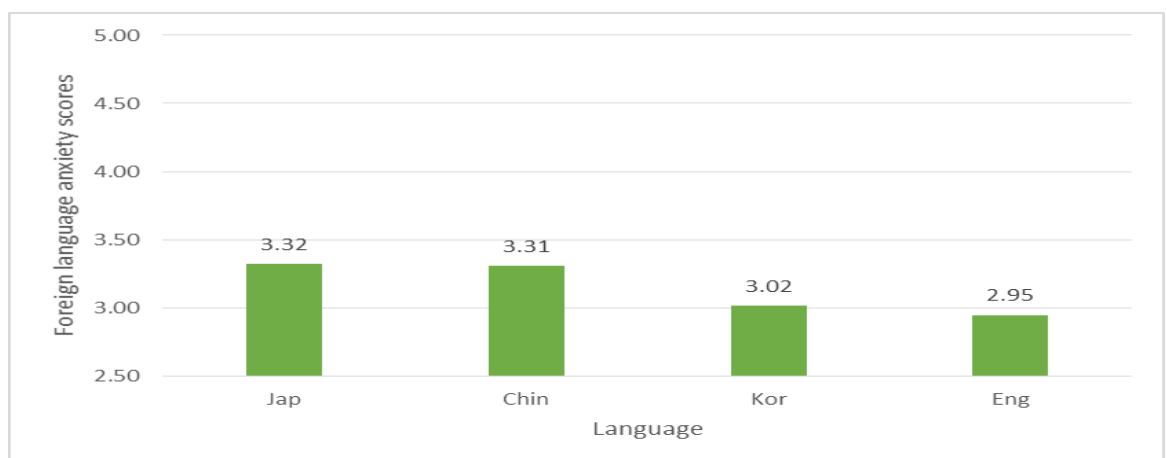
The level of FLA was also significantly different (sig .000), English (M = 2.97, SD = 1.01), Chinese (M = 3.31, SD = 0.90), Korean (M = 3.02, SD = 0.98), and Japanese (M = 3.32, SD = 1.06), $F(4, 712) = 6.248$, $p < .05$. The effect size was small (eta squared = 0.027). The Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that FLA in English was significantly different from Chinese and Japanese while there was no significant difference between English and Korean. According to table 4.3, students reported highest FLA in Japanese and Chinese respectively while experienced least anxiety in English.

Table 4.3 FLA across Languages

Language	(n)	Mean(SD)
English	348	2.97(1.01)
Chinese	157	3.31 (.90)
Korean	84	3.02 (.98)
Japanese	93	3.32 (1.06)

* $p < .05$

Figure 4.8 FLA across Languages



However, since the overall scores of each language were computed separately, it is unclear whether the results might be the same among simultaneous learners. In order to investigate this further, scores of simultaneous learners of English and one additional language were selected. Students who knew at least two languages were grouped and scores were compared using separate paired sample t-tests. The results are shown in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 English and Chinese Scores on Ideal Self, Ought-to Self and FLA

Variable	English		Chinese		sig.	N
	M	SD	M	SD		
Ideal self	4.04	.52	3.86	.56	.000	155
Ought-to self	3.71	.94	3.56	.94	.000	155
FLA	3.19	1.00	3.31	.91	.175	155

For simultaneous learners of English and Chinese, motivation to learn English was significantly higher, ideal self: $t(155) = 3.873$; ought-to self: $t(155) = 4.164$. However, it was found that FLA between the two languages did not differ significantly from each other, $t(155) = -1.363$. However, it is interesting to note that despite the FLA scores being non-significantly different in English and Chinese, English anxiety scores were as equally as high as the Chinese anxiety scores.

Table 4.5 English and Korean Scores on Ideal Self, Ought-to Self and FLA

Variable	English		Korean		sig.	N
	M	SD	M	SD		
Ideal self	4.08	.57	3.95	.46	.044	81
Ought-to self	3.77	1.00	3.43	.89	.000	81
FLA	2.92	1.12	3.02	1.00	.367	81

A similar pattern was found for English and Korean ideal self and ought-to self scores (see **table 4.5**). Students had significantly higher motivation in English, ideal self

$t(80) = 2.048$ and ought-to self $t(80) = 5.679$. Although learners felt more anxious using Korean, the difference was not significant, $t(80) = -.908$.

Table 4.6 English and Japanese Scores on Ideal Self, Ought-to Self and FLA

Variable	English		Japanese		sig.	N
	M	SD	M	SD		
Ideal self	4.14	.54	3.95	.56	.002	91
Ought-to self	3.81	.86	3.49	.88	.000	91
FLA	2.71	1.04	3.32	1.07	.000	91

Compared with English scores, simultaneous learner of English and Japanese had lower scores on Japanese ideal self, $t(90) = 3.271$, and ought-to self, $t(90) = 5.379$, but had higher Japanese FLA score, $t(90) = -5.076$. Although their Japanese FLA score was the highest among Asian languages, it is interesting to note that their English FLA score was the lowest among the three groups.

The t-test results showed that these groups of simultaneous language learners had similar patterns on ideal self and ought-to self scores. English was the language students felt most motivated to learn, as can be seen from both ideal self and ought-to self score. However, FLA scores reveal obvious differences among three groups of students. There was no significant difference in FLA scores among Chinese and Korean learners. However, learners of Chinese felt highly anxious in both English and Chinese, while learners of Korean had low FLA scores in both English and Korean. Learners of Japanese showed a significant difference in anxiety scores. They felt least anxious in English but felt most anxious in Japanese.

4.4 Language Specialist Students English-medium Business Students

RQ2: Are there any significant differences between motivation, anxiety and international posture among language specialist learners and English-medium business students?

H₀ There is no significant difference in ideal self, ought-to self and FLA across languages.

H₁ There are significant differences in ideal self, ought-to self and FLA across languages.

In order to test the hypothesis, multiple t-tests were conducted to compare two groups of participants and explore how the dependent variables diverged across languages. For the five comparisons, the alpha level was set at $p < .01$ for each of the five significant tests, to provide the same level of protection as .05 for a single significant test, $(1-.01)^5 = (1-.05)$. The results are presented in table 4.8

Table 4.7 Comparison of Ideal self, ought-to self and FLA across languages between students from Humanities and NUIC

		Humanities		NUIC		t	df	Effect
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD			size
Ideal self	Overall	3.87	.43	4.09	.46	-4.48**	354	.054
	English	3.88	.52	4.27	.49	-7.25**	347	.132
	Chinese	3.87	.58	3.85	.54	.20	155	.000
	Korean	3.91	.46	3.97	.46	-.54	82	.004
	Japanese	4.02	.44	3.91	.61	1.01	90.438	.011
Ought-to self	Overall	3.50	.91	3.74	.90	-2.48	354	.017
	English	3.60	.92	3.91	.96	-3.07*	347	.026
	Chinese	3.57	.91	3.53	.99	.25	155	.000
	Korean	3.22	1.03	3.56	.79	-1.66	82	.033
	Japanese	3.36	.79	3.55	.93	-1.01	91	.011
FLA	Overall	3.21	.80	2.94	.82	3.10*	354	.027
	English	3.19	1.00	2.66	.98	4.98**	347	.067
	Chinese	3.34	.95	3.26	.84	.55	155	.002
	Korean	3.19	1.02	2.83	.91	1.69	82	.034
	Japanese	3.23	.95	3.38	1.12	-.69	91	.005
International Posture	Overall	3.32	.31	3.42	.39	-2.79*	354	.022

*p < .01 level; **p < .001 level

The most noticeable difference in table 4.7 is the English scores for all variables. Ideal self, ought-to self, FLA and IP scores of Humanities and NUIC students were significantly different. This suggested that English as the language of instruction linked to students' motivation, FLA and IP. It is obvious that students from the international college (NUIC) had more positive attitudes towards English as can be seen from their significantly higher level of motivation, lower FLA and more international posture.

When considering other languages, no significant difference was found between Humanities and NUIC students. It was anticipated that students from Humanities might have scored higher in languages other than English because the students had made an active decision to study these language majors and they spent most of their classes to master the language of their choice. However, the results do not show any differences in L3 motivation and anxiety between the two groups. Perhaps the English-medium education or learning environment in the international college might help create more positive attitudes to learn other foreign languages.

Figure 4.9 Scores for Ideal Self across Languages of Humanity and NUIC Students

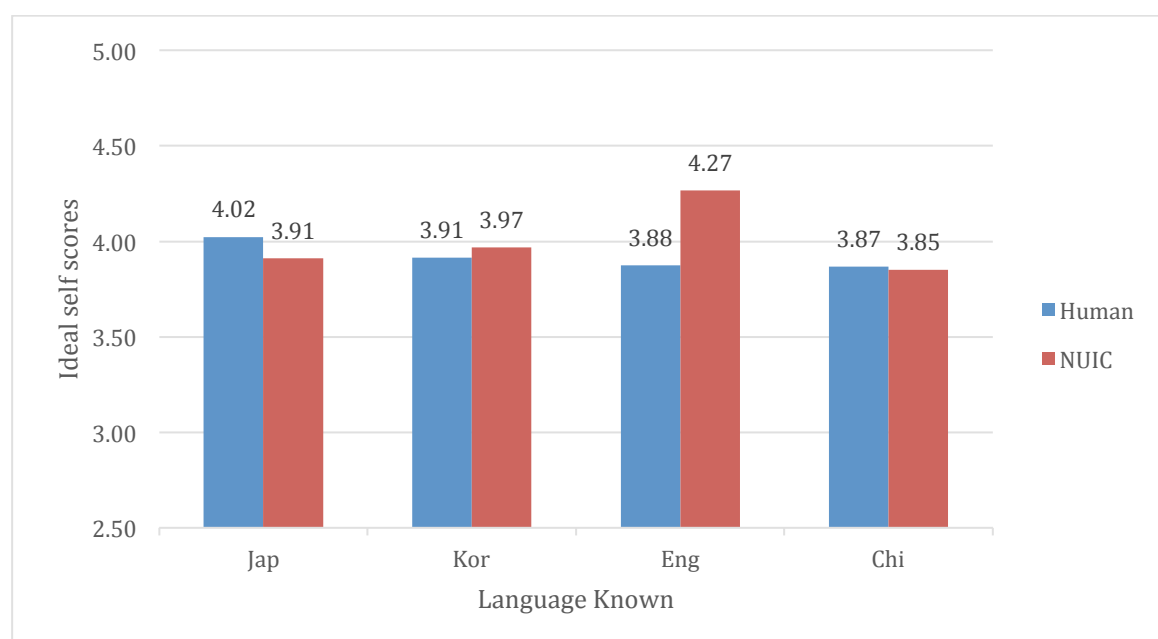


Figure 4.10 Scores for Ought-to Self across Languages of Humanity and NUIC Students

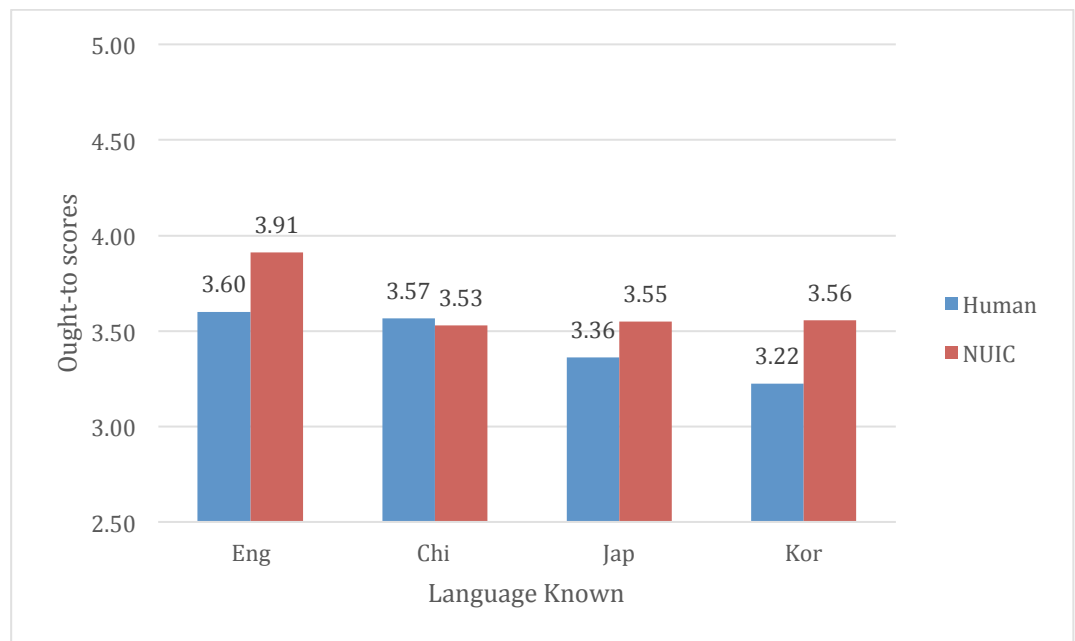
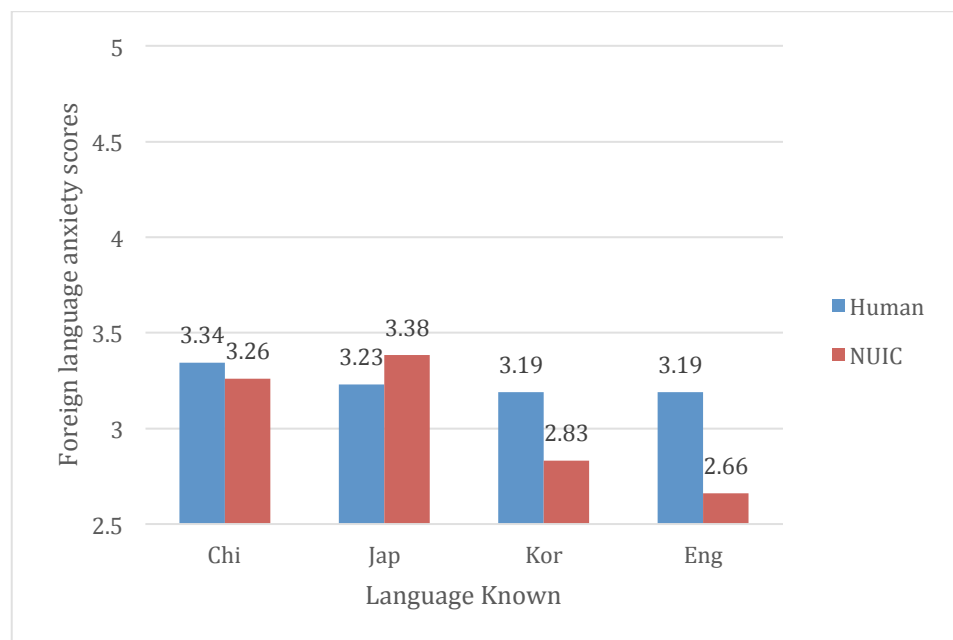


Figure 4.11 Scores for FLA across Languages of Humanity and NUIC Students



4.5 The Dynamic Interplay between Motivation, Anxiety and International Posture

RQ3: Do motivation and anxiety of foreign languages other than English affect students' level of international posture?

In order to find out whether the knowledge of foreign languages other than English links to students' level of IP, a series of Pearson correlations (two-tailed) were conducted with four different groups of learners of each language. Table 4.8 presents the relationship between international posture and scores for ideal self, ought-to self and FLA in each language. Both English ideal self and ought-to self scores correlate with international posture. For the Chinese scores, only ought-to self scores correlated positively with international posture, indicating a moderate relationship between the variables. Medium correlations were found between international posture and Korean ideal/ought-to self. However, both Japanese ideal self and ought-to self did not correlate with students' IP. It is interesting that FLA did not show any relationship with international posture at all in any language. The results are shown in **table 4.8**.

Table 4.8 Correlations between International Posture, Ideal self, ought-to self and FLA across languages

Language	N	Ideal self	Ought-to self	FLA
IP—English	349	.304*	.258*	.028
IP—Chinese	157	.152	.324*	.000
IP—Korean	84	.299*	.307*	.212
IP—Japanese	93	.197	.175	.049

* $p < .01$

Not only scores of each language were computed to find relationship with IP, English scores of L3 learners were also calculated according to their groups. For example, scores of simultaneous learners of Japanese and English were computed twice, first for Japanese scores and then for English scores.

Table 4.9 showed the correlations of the scores in English of simultaneous language learners of English and another additional language. For learners of Chinese, English seemed to be responsible for the increase in international posture because both English ideal and ought-to self scores positively correlated with international posture while only Chinese ought-to self scores correlate to international posture. Although Korean scores significantly correlated with international posture ($p < .01$), English scores of Korean learners were not significantly correlated at all ($p < .01$). This will be investigated further in the interview session. The result for Japanese, however, is surprising. Japanese scores were not related to international posture at all but English scores of ideal self correlated positively with international posture (as shown in figure 4.8 below).

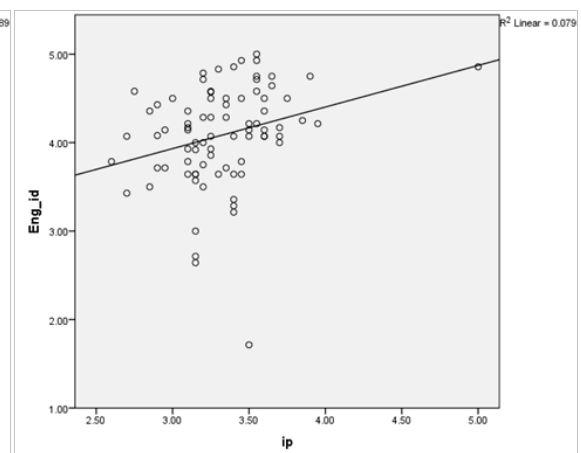
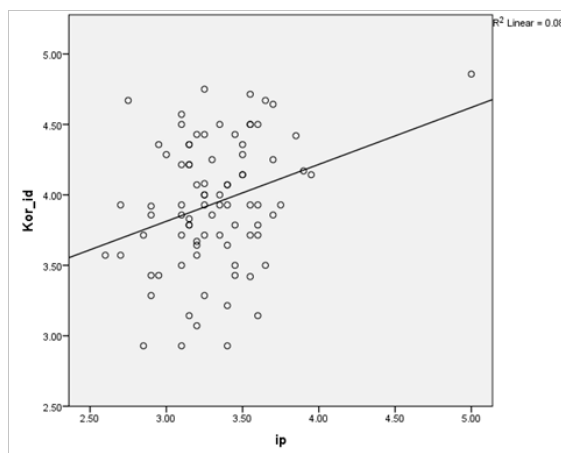
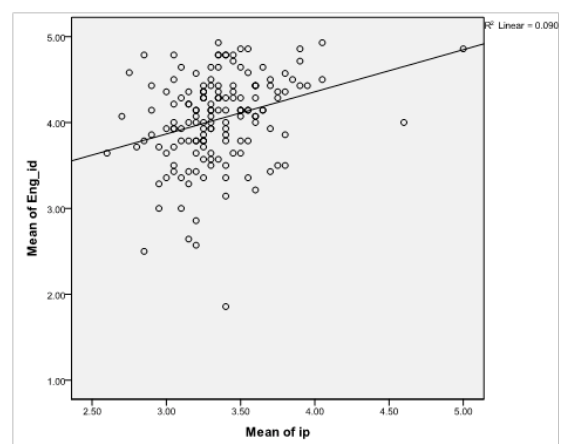
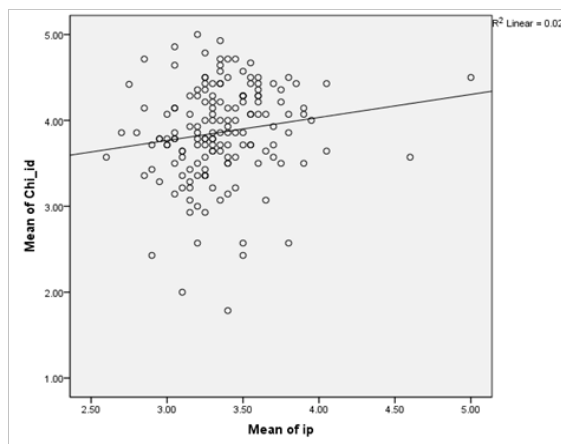
Table 4.9 Correlations analysis between international posture and ideal self, ought-to self and FLA in English

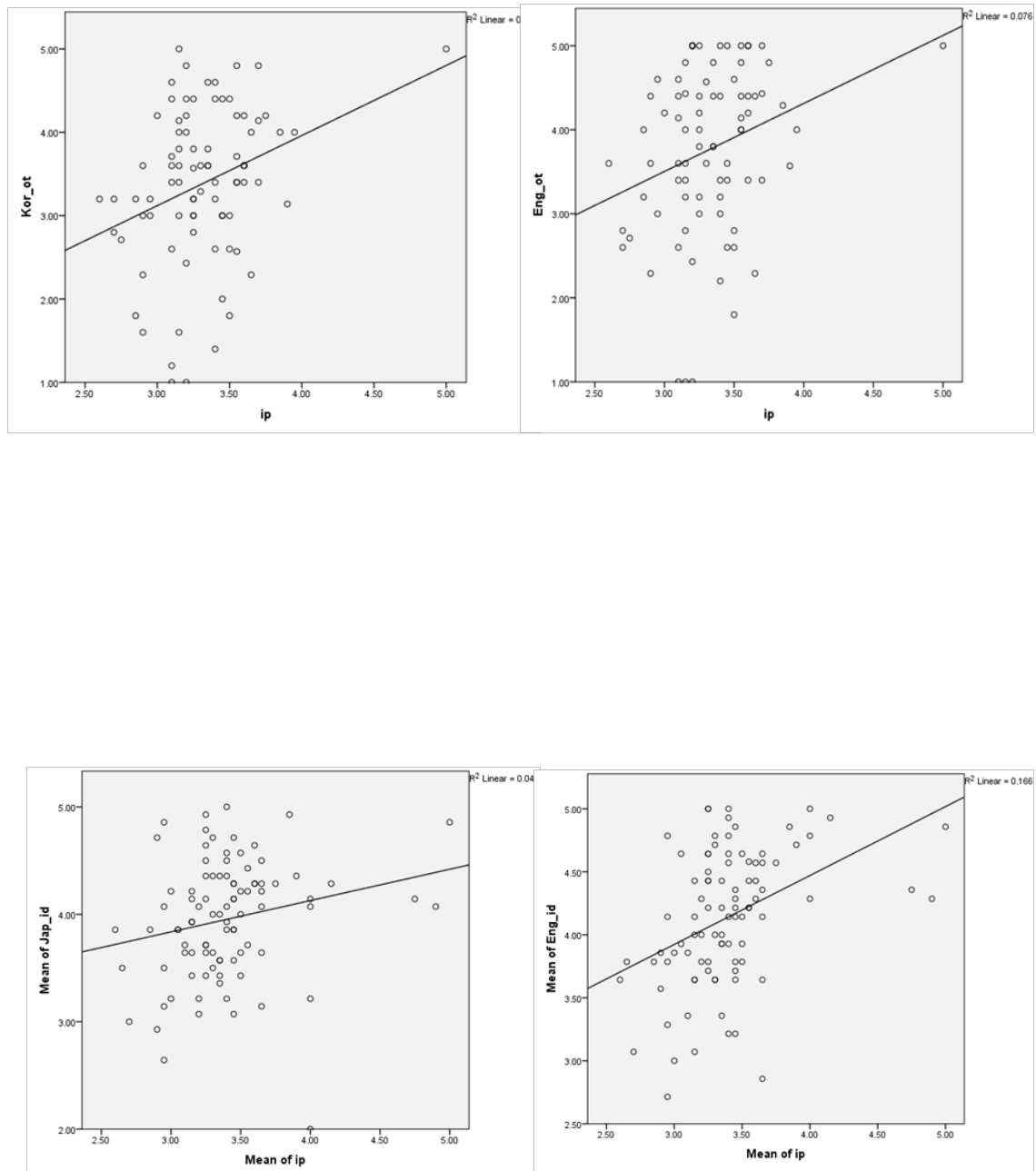
Students	N	Ideal self	Ought-to self	FLA
IP—Chinese	157	.299*	.337*	.012
IP—Korean	84	.282	.276	.118
IP—Japanese	91	.384*	.240	.031

* $p < .01$

Figure 4.13 Correlations of international posture and ideal self score of Korean
Chinese ideal self
Korean learners (comparison of Korean and English ideal self scores)
English ideal self score

Figures 4.11-4.14 show the comparison of L2 English scores and L3 scores of students who learned that particular language. The graphs show that L2 English is not the only language that affects IP. For those who know two or more FLs, some languages might influence their IP more than others.





4.6 Conclusion

This chapter answered the research questions using a quantitative approach.

Motivation and anxiety were found to differ across languages, the differences between language specialist students and English-medium business students on multiple

language learning, and the interaction between motivation, anxiety and international posture. The next chapter will discuss these quantitative results.

Chapter 5: Discussion of the Quantitative Findings

In this chapter, principal findings will be discussed. In the first section, motivations and anxiety across language will be discussed from the overall patterns of the four languages involved in this study and then from the separate groups of learners who studied the language simultaneously. The second section will elaborate on how language specialist students differed from English-medium business students in their scores on motivation anxiety and IP. The last section will describe how scores of motivation in each FL linked to IP differently.

5.1 Motivations and Anxiety across Languages

The results for research question 1 showed that there are significant differences between each language in terms of ideal self, ought-to self and FLA. As expected, the result confirms previous studies that motivation scores for ideal self and ought-to self were highest in English (Dörnyei et al., 2006; Henry, 2010, 2012). While Chinese, the second most popular language with the second largest number of learners, was found to have the lowest scores and thus differed significantly from English ideal self score. This is somehow surprising considering that Chinese is the learners' top choice apart from English. A similar result was found in Humphreys and Spratt (2008) who found that Hong Kong learners rated Chinese lowest despite the increasing importance of the language in Hong Kong and elsewhere, while Japanese was found to be as popular as English. A possible explanation for this phenomenon might be that China seemed to be less successful in promoting its cultural products compared to its competitors such as Japan and Korea. Japanese and Korean ideal self scores, on the other hand, were not significantly different from English.

The findings revealed that English had the highest ought-to self scores and differed significantly from Korean's. Dörnyei (2005, 2009) suggested that the ought-to self is the opposite of the ideal self. Ought-to self score indicates students' motivation to learn for fear of negative consequence. Thus, while English seems to offer opportunities for learners, at the same time it also acts as a gatekeeper, and for those who do not know English they might have to pay the price. Ushioda (2013) said that, "For many students in many contexts the external pressures to learn English are strong because of the critical role that English plays in gatekeeping tests at significant transitional stages of education and of entry into the world of work (p.110). This might be the reason why there are high English ought-to self scores. Korean ought-to self scores were significantly lower than the English ones. This might somehow suggest that students felt less external pressure to study Korean. Low ought-to self score in Korean might be the result of students' enthusiasm to pursue the language of their favorite pop culture. Also, according to the interviews with learners of Korean, they admitted enjoying Korean cultural products regularly, considering this as a way to improve the language too.

Anxiety scores seemed to reflect students' attitudes towards that particular language. Learners reported significantly higher FLA in Chinese and Japanese which were significantly different from English. Japanese was the language learners reported the most anxiety for, followed closely by Chinese. The reason for high FLA in Japanese and Chinese will be discussed later in the qualitative section where students were asked what the causes of their anxiety were. On the other hand, Korean, which is also an Asian language, did not have such a high FLA scores. A possible reason might be drawn from the situation in Henry's study (2013) in which English becomes an integral part of youth leisure activities outside the classroom in Sweden. In the same way,

Korean entertainment attracts young learners all over Asia, making it an integral part in the students' activities and thus makes students less anxious. Li Wei (2008) maintained that "speakers feel a sense of identity security in a culturally familiar environment, but insecurity in a culturally unfamiliar environment" (p.14). In this case, Thai learners who consumed Korean cultural products may have felt more familiar with the Korean cultural environment. As for English, considering the length of learning and the more prevalent cultural products, it is obviously the language most students are familiar with, so there was no doubt why students felt least anxious when using English.

The paired sample t-tests of two FLs simultaneously learned provided more insights about multiple language learners and their perspectives on each language they knew. It was as predicted that when comparing between English and the other L3s, English would have higher motivation scores. However, the result of anxiety was surprising, with different results for each language.

Chinese and English is the first pair discussed. The t-test scores showed that there were significant differences in both ideal self and ought-to self. English had significantly higher scores on both motivational selves, but no significant difference in anxiety scores. At first glance, one might think that no significant difference in anxiety scores between Chinese and English might mean that Chinese students had a lower anxiety levels because, according to the ANOVA result, FLA was lowest in English. However, it turned out that Chinese learners suffered from FLA in English as much as in Chinese. Possible reasons for high FLA level in Chinese might be that students were more prevention focused—relying on others' expectation and avoiding negative outcomes—which made them prone to anxiety. One of the most popular reasons for learning Chinese was its practicality, which means some of the students were not really interested in the language but thinking of future use. Once they started learning and

came across difficulties, it was, therefore, difficult for some of them to sustain a high level of motivation and keep their anxiety level low. This also indicates that the image of the Chinese language suffered a lot as learners perceived it as the top language they wanted to learn but it had significantly lower ideal self score. Chinese learners also suffered from FLA in English probably due to their low level of English proficiency. It is possible that some Chinese learners had to spend their time and effort on Chinese which was their specialist language, making it difficult to practice English due to their limited linguistic resources. Low English proficiency level might be also responsible for high anxiety level (e.g., Marcos- Llinás and Garau, 2009). Based on admission scores (Thai, English, and Social Study) students with higher total scores tend to choose English, Japanese or Korean placing Chinese students on a lower proficiency rank compared to students from more popular majors.

The t-test scores showed that simultaneous learners of Korean and English differed significantly in ideal self and ought-to self scores. English motivational scores appeared to exceed Korean, which was not a surprise considering the global status of English. Yet ANOVA tests confirmed that learners of Korean did not have a high level of FLA compared to the other two Asian languages. It is difficult to pinpoint what makes Korean learners less anxious in both Korean and English, but possible reasons might be that a number of Korean learners enjoyed consuming new fashion trends and cultural products from foreign media. They were probably more intensely in contact with media in both Korean and English, resulting in more international posture and lower FLA.

Japanese was the language that revealed significant differences everywhere. Japanese learners had the highest English motivation scores (both ideal self and ought-to self) and the lowest English anxiety scores compared with learners of Chinese and

Korean. Their Japanese FLA scores were the highest among all FLs, but the lowest in English. Students seemed to be most anxious with Japanese, the language of their own choice, with the highest anxiety scores among all languages involved in this study. It was as if they were at ease with English while struggling with Japanese. This is probably because Japanese major students were those among the highest admission scores, which including three subjects—Thai, English and Social Study—compared to other language majors. Some learners of Japanese already had high proficiency in English before they decided to study Japanese, which they saw as a challenge and an opportunity for their prospective career. Their high anxiety level, which was specific to this particular language, will be discussed in detail in the qualitative discussion.

The comparison between the two tests demonstrates the complexity of multiple language learners' motivation. If considering scores from the ANOVA results only, it would not be obvious that the results were different when comparing the scores of two languages from the same learners using t-tests. English could be seen as one of the major factors that might affect learners' motivation to study other L3s.

5.2 Language Specialist Students English-medium Business Students

Multiple t-tests were conducted to find whether differences existed between the students of two faculties. As both Humanities and NUIC students are familiar with multiple FL learning despite the fact that NUIC are more business-oriented, the findings suggested that apart from English scores, there were no significant differences between the scores for the other FLs.

It was expected that NUIC students might have scored higher in English ideal self and ought-to self because they were in at an English medium college, and

Humanities students might gain higher motivation scores in L3s because most of them majored in that particular language. It was not surprising that NUIC students scored higher in English motivation and had lower anxiety levels, but that Humanities students did not score higher on L3s comes as a surprise that needs further investigation. NUIC students learned the L3 as elective courses compared to Humanities students who were mostly L3 specialists. The findings suggested that despite NUIC students' fewer L3 class hours (only one course per semester, 3 hours a week), their motivational levels (ideal self and ought-to self) were not significantly different from the Humanities students.

However, this could be interpreted as the effect of the level of L3 class they were studying in. Humanities students might be more advanced in their lessons, requiring a lot more effort, so there were more obstacles to overcome. NUIC students, on the other hand, with one course per semester might feel less pressured because lessons were not as difficult for beginners or intermediate learners, resulting in higher motivation and lower FLA. Consequently, the advanced level of L3 class that Humanities students were studying might be responsible for their low motivation scores compared to NUIC students' beginner and intermediate classes.

From the comparison of Humanities and NUIC students in research question 2, the evidence lends some supports to the previous studies that claimed the advantages of English-medium college learning environment over mother-tongue education on students' higher motivation and IP, and lower FLA. It is obvious that NUIC students benefited more from their learning environment, which resulted in their higher motivation and international posture but lower FLA, regardless of which FLs they learned. In this case, the NUIC students' success may arise from the fact that their confidence in using English on a daily basis leads to the same result when studying

another FL as well. The real use of one FL might contribute to the positive attitudes to learn other languages. This can be explained as a result of learners' increased metalinguistic awareness, which helps transfer previous knowledge of L1 and L2 to facilitate the learning of L3s. Gabrys-Barker and Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2012) claimed that metalinguistic awareness also lowers learners' FLA and increases the pace of learning with growing experience.

Based on the findings, it seems that the English-medium college had created an environment suitable for FL learning. The scores suggested that NUIC learners who studied on the business program appeared to be highly motivated, less anxious and more interculturally oriented than the language students themselves.

5.3 The Dynamic Interplay between Motivation, Anxiety and International Posture

As the concept of international posture was originally linked to English language in previous studies (e.g., Yashima, 2002), here it was linked to FLs other than English in order to see whether knowing an L3 plays any role in students' international posture.

Chinese learners' international posture seemed to have a stronger link to English motivational scores rather than Chinese scores. English ideal self and ought-to self correlated to international posture but only Chinese ought-to self score did so. For Chinese learners, English might be the language associated with international communication. In contrast with previous studies that IP correlated with ideal self (Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Yashima, 2009), in the current research Chinese ought-to self correlated with IP. It is possible that the increasing importance of China in international

trade causes learners of Chinese to feel pressured by external factors like family expectations and the need for Chinese in the business sector, all of which emphasise the role of Chinese in international trade in Asia. Based on the growing trade between China and Thailand, some students might believe that knowing Chinese is a gateway to business opportunities. Students might probably influenced by their parents to study Chinese to help the family business. This might be the reason why students aspired to learn the language in order to perform in international trade while they might not want to study the language themselves.

Korean learners seemed to be the only group for which international posture score did not link to English scores at all. The Korean learners' international posture was linked to Korean ideal and ought-to self scores rather than their English scores. English ideal self and ought-to self did not correlate with international posture at all. A possible reason is that Korean learners might have certain characteristics that contribute to intercultural orientation. For example, interest in Korean cultural products might result in high motivation to learn Korean and enthusiasm to communicate with people who shared interest in Korean culture.

For simultaneous learners of English and Japanese, only English ideal self score correlated with international posture scores. Japanese ideal self and ought-to self were not related to international posture. This showed that Japanese learners had highly positive attitudes towards English but not so high towards Japanese. A possible explanation for the correlation of English motivations (ideal self and ought-to self) and international posture of Japanese learners is that these students probably perceived Japanese as an additional language and a potential benefit for their future work while regarding English as the core language for communication with the outside world. This is quite similar to the findings in Yashima et al.'s (2004) study about the increasing

importance of English as perceived by Japanese students: English is not only associated with Westerners, but becomes more of a means to communicate with their Asian neighbours as well. Such a mindset might play down the importance of Japanese as a tool for international communication.

Both Chinese and Japanese learners appeared to rely more on English as a tool to achieve international posture while Korean learners attributed Korean language as orientating them towards international posture.

5.4 Conclusion

The results showed that learners had various motivation and FLA levels in different FLs which are similar to previous studies (e.g., Dörnyei et al. 2006; Dewaele, 2002, 2008). It also throws doubt on the opinion that English threatens the presence of other FLs (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2006; Henry, 2010, Ushioda, 2013; Busse and Williams, 2010; Busse, 2013). The findings implied that there were differences across languages and that some latent variables probably affected the result of this study because not all languages were negatively affected by English. This put forward the need for a dynamic approach to explore this complex puzzle. Jessner (2006) noted that “According to a dynamic system approach the factors constituting multilingual proficiency constantly interact with each other and have to be viewed holistically, that is in a non-additive manner depending on each other development” (p. 117). One should keep in mind the effect of dynamic systems as more languages are involved in the process of learning. English itself should be considered as one of variables affecting the results because there is a reciprocal relationship between English and L3 simultaneously learned.

In the following chapter, the issues will be further investigated using a qualitative approach to clarify some points and explore the dynamic nature of motivation and FLA using retrospective interviews. Also some issues emerging from the interviews will be discussed.

Chapter 6: Qualitative Analyses

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is based on interview data on language learners' history and their learning experiences in retrospect. The interviews focused on comparing L2 (English) and L3 (additional languages) to follow the development of their motivation and how learning simultaneous languages affects the course of motivation. The students' points of view were analysed and arranged into themes through thematic content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The structure of this chapter is organized according to the emerging key themes. First, the result of the open-ended question from the questionnaire will be presented. Followed by interviews of 14 students from both the Faculty of Humanities and NUIC who were studying on different language majors and the English program.

The interviews section will begin with ideal self, ought-to self and, FLA. The issues of FLA for language specialist students will be discussed in detail as interesting issues emerged. Then, the differences between Humanities students and NUIC students will be discussed. The chapter ends with an analysis of the dynamic interplay between motivation, anxiety and international posture.

6.2 Open-ended Question

Although comments are generally considered qualitative data, with the help of Nvivo10, the contents were grouped and computed to present as numerical data. The open-ended question encouraged students to tell their FL learning experiences. The results showed the less to the most mentioned topics.

When asking participants to give any comment on FL learning experiences, three topics mentioned the most were the economic value of the languages (42.11%), issues on motivation (like or dislike) (34.59%), and intercultural orientation (international posture) (24.06%). respectively. Most students perceived languages as one of important skills to be invested in. However, they also indicate concerns about learning L3, anxiety and the ASEAN Economic community as the factors relevant to their language learning experiences. This to some extent suggested that students had a clear goal of learning FLs but at the same time also reflected their concern about the future use when they mentioned intercultural competence and the upcoming AEC. This trend was precipitated by the growing awareness of international cooperation of countries within the region and around the world. The frequency of the terms used and the example of the term in context are shown in table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Issues raised by questionnaire respondents

	Theme	e.g.	N	Proportion (%) N=133
1.	Teacher influences	If the teacher teaches well, students will learn better and pay more attention in class.	1	0.75
2.	Difficulties in communication	I used to speak with people from different countries but their accents were varied and difficult to understand.	1	.075
3.	Problems with learning	I like learning FLs but I don't have opportunity to practice because there's rarely any chance to meet foreigners.	2	1.50
4.	Learner autonomy	I think practicing listening and speaking in class is not enough. We have to study by ourselves outside class. To me, YouTube is my teacher who teaches me	2	1.50

listening skill.

5.	Native speakers	Studying with native speakers help improving accent, speaking skill, and confidence although it might not be easy at the beginning.	3	2.26
6.	Intercultural friendship	English helps us get more foreign friends. I feel happy to communicate in FLs.	7	5.26
7.	Global English	I think English is language which [is] very important in the world. English can [be] use[d] all around the world.	10	7.52
8.	Anxiety issues	I know the grammar well but I can't use it when I find a foreigner. Suddenly I forgot everything in my mind. In my head it's blank. I am very nervous every time. It's not good I know so I have to practice and practice more [to] be better.	11	8.27
9.	ASEAN	I love English and I want to improve my English because it's a middle [international] language for communicating with other people from another country and it is very vital for work life in AEC.	13	9.77
10.	Positive attitudes towards L3	I learned English since pre-school but I can rarely communicate in English. I studied Japanese for just 3 years but I can speak Japanese much better than English.	15	11.28
11.	Intercultural communication competence	I feel proud that I choose English language to be my major. I went to travel abroad and I can communicate with others. That makes my life even easier.	21	15.79
12.	Intercultural competence	Learning FLs help expand our vision because we can learn both	32	24.06

	language and culture.		
13.	Motivation issues	I think learning FLs is very important nowadays. My family supports me a lot with activities and language camps.	46 34.59
14.	Economic values of FLs	I believe knowing another language is a key to be successful in our life.	56 42.11

Based on the frequency of the topic mentioned by students, it seemed that students were concerned most with economic values of FLs. The result was in accordance with interviews that most students had instrumental reason to study FLs.

6.3 Interviews

There was evidence that students' motivation and anxiety were different across languages. English was perceived as necessary in terms of international communication. But regarding the professional use of English in the future, English represented some faraway vague goals, and indeterminate general use while L3 learners had stronger short-term and long-term goals with pragmatic use. This is similar to what Yashima et al. (2004) remarked about students in Japan, "Japanese youth typically have dual orientations in studying English: a short-term realistic goal related to examinations and grades, and a somewhat vague long-term objective related to using English for international/intercultural communication"

According to Dörnyei (2005, 2009), the concept of possible selves originates from the reciprocal relationship between oneself and the society. Chen elaborated the concept as not the sole product of social influence, but also shaped by individuals who conformed themselves to "the socio-contextual influence embedded within the wider

world” (2012, p. 51). The present study seemed to echo Chen’s in that there was the shift from ought-to self to ideal self, which suggested the dynamic nature of motivation and Ushioda’s person-in-context relational concept. Chen (2012, p. 57) suggested that “the ought-to self is likely to be shifted towards the more autonomous end of extrinsic motivation, be fully internalized into learners’ self-concept, and turn out to be the ideal self, if social contextual conditions render one connected, effective, and agentic in achieving extrinsic goals.”

In order to investigate the concept of possible selves across languages, simultaneous learners of various languages were interviewed about their language learning experience. The interview data allowed the researcher to better capture the possible underlying causes of what the quantitative patterns were, especially in terms of English motivation. Most learners agreed that English was the most important language and indicated the desire to master English. However, since almost every single interviewee said this, it somehow sounded like a cliché and it is difficult to tell whether this was the students’ ideal self or ought-to self influenced by extrinsic orientations. Lamb (2012) observed a similar phenomenon in his Indonesian junior high school subjects. He pointed out that early adolescence learners’ ideal self tended to be vague and idealistic and thus less likely to promote effortful learning behavior.

6.3.1 English Ideal Self

The findings related to English ideal self were different between two groups of students—1) the L3 major students, and 2) English major and NUIC students. Since ideal self largely deals with future selves the person would like to become, questions about their planned future language use were asked.

There were distinct views on English between two groups of students, language specialist and English-medium business students. The Eastern language major students were found to have vague ideas on English and reported less motivated behaviours while the English-medium business students seemed to have realistic goal, more motivated behaviours and practical short-term and long term plan to improve their English.

The Asian language student group (or L3 major students onward) and their ideal self will be discussed first. English ideal self appeared to be relatively obscure when Eastern language students were asked to relate it with their future career. They did not have a visualized self-image as a fluent speaker of English. English seemed to signify a distant successful future without question of how English would help them in achieving that goal. They just felt the critical importance attached to English. This group of students might be similar to Ryan's (2008) Japanese students whose behaviour confused the researcher. "Students would sometimes display a great determination and interest in improving their English abilities but then suddenly seem to lose all enthusiasm. It seemed a highly unpredictable phenomenon" (p. 12). This group of participants (S1 and S2) expressed their excessive wish to learn, but no obvious motivated behaviour was seen.

"When thinking about working, Korean comes first. To communicate internationally, that must be English." (S2)

"Korean is the language for my future career. I want to be a Korean teacher, so I have to master Korean language. (How about English?) English is the most important language. (How do you think you will use English in your future career?) I don't know

for sure but even in South Korea, the official documents are in both Korean and English because for people who don't know Korean, they can still use English.” (S1)

Ushioda (2012) observed a similar pattern among learners from all over the world in their views of international English. Students did not see a strong link between English and the real use of English in the future. She concluded that general views on the global status of English could be explained by the concept of international posture. Very often, the concept of motivation seems overlapping with international posture as students feel that English will “enable them to integrate in different ways with members of the global community” (p. 9).

Although they had strongly positive attitudes towards English, some reverse patterns were observed among students of Eastern languages who reported high English ideal self. Instead of fulfilling their dream of being proficient in English, they opted for another language. Obviously, they had promotion focus on English language learning and indicated their intention to pursue English, but they prioritized what language should be studied at the time and what language could wait. Due to limited linguistic resources, these students could not afford to study as many languages as they wanted, so they invested in language learning one at a time with English at the end of the priority list for some of them.

“I don't want to study too many languages. They will mix up” (S2).

“English is a must for everyone, but I decided to study Korean major because it's quite rare. You can study English anywhere anytime, but for Korean, you can't find it taught outside university. [...] I study English longer. It certainly will be a part of my life. Whenever I feel that my English is weak, it is easy to learn or to find a tutor. So I put all my efforts on Korean. English can wait.” (S1)

“I chose Japanese major not English because I have studied English long enough to learn by myself. If I want to practice English, it is easy. There is also the Internet [where he can find more than enough materials]. It is easy.” (S3)

The interviews suggest that students had very positive attitudes towards English, but decided to put it on hold during their acquisition of another language. It is thus too early to conclude whether these L3 learners could be regarded as having achieved ideal self state in English during this inactive period because both their short term and long term goal were to achieve L3 at the time of the interview. According to Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009) concept of ideal L2 self, the person with ideal self will try to diminish the gap between their actual self and ideal self in order to reach the desired state of being a proficient language user/speaker. While English was out of the picture, the desire to bridge the gap between the actual self and the ideal self was temporarily deferred, regardless of the extremely positive attitude towards English.

This confirms the dynamic nature of motivation that undergoes the state of ebb and flow over time. Learners’ English ideal self seemed to be suspended during the process of pursuing another language. According to students’ accounts, throughout pre-university education, they reported maintaining good performance and positive attitudes towards English. We can see the unequal distribution of efforts during university years. The shift occurred when more FLs were involved. This change was caused by both internal and external factors. An internal factor was the students’ own active decision to include more FLs in their formal education. On the personal level, students believed in their abilities to learn multiple languages while keeping the same proficiency level of the former learned English since English seemed to offer flexibility and convenience in terms of language reactivation. External factors were university regulations that

required students to study an additional language and the pressure from mainstream media and society that emphasize the need for FLs.

However, there are consequences for multiple language learning. Jessner (2008) noted that attrition tends to occur more in the case of multiple languages. Despite the confidence in their English background knowledge and the ability to relearn the language at anytime, students reported dramatic attrition in English. For example, when asked by foreigners for directions, one of the students found that he could not reactivate English as he thought he could. “I understood what they were asking from me but I could not articulate in English. Only Korean words came into my mind” (S1). Neither did they mention any attempt to practice and sustain their English knowledge as they thought they would have done. “Since I was here (studying at college), my English was stopped. Like I stop English to increase Chinese [input]. I have less English class” (S4). Students were also aware of the tradeoff themselves.

Stronger English ideal self was detected in English major and NUIC students. Real investment in English was found in both groups who were in English-related programs. They reported to have autonomous learning activities like self-studying and using technology and media to facilitate the process of improving their English skills. Both English major and NUIC students were faced with the immediate need to be proficient enough to communicate in classroom and improve their grades. It was not surprising that English major students showed strong ideal self and motivated behaviours, as S8 explains:

“I practiced English outside classroom very often. Sometimes on my own, sometimes with friends. We would imitate sentences we heard from the films and

started a dialogue with each other. That's a lot of fun and we could learn from that as well." (S8)

NUIC students whose environment required them to speak English on a daily basis were also found to be highly motivated to practice the language. The students, like S6, had set their goal of why and how they should learn English.

"Every week, I watch a film and write a reflection. At first, the teacher assigned this as homework, but after that I keep doing this on my own. I found this method help me a lot. I do not want to be better than everyone. I just want to be able to communicate in English with my teachers, friends and foreigners". (S6)

Although both English major and NUIC students also study a third language, they invested more in English and thought that English would be the primary tools for them to get a job while L3 would be add-on abilities—something they could put in their language profile. S5 and S6 also had a long-term plan for their English education and career.

"I planned to further my study in English-speaking countries like Australia. If I cannot, I will go to China to study Chinese instead" (S5).

"I know what I want to do in the future. I will go to study about photography in Australia. I have to use English for that. After I finish studying, I will run my own business about cameras and photography as well. (Do you think you need English for that?) Of course, my elder brother's friend is a photographer. Sometimes he has to deal with foreign customers and he asked me to help him from time to time. We had to understand what the customers wanted and I help him interpret. I really like that.

Nowadays a lot of customers are foreigners. I am sure that I need English for my career in the future”. (S6)

The differences were observed between English/NUIC student and L3 major students. English/NUIC students had more vivid ideal self and investment in English while L3 major students also had the desire to become proficient in English but could not afford time and energy or still had not felt the need to take action. Nevertheless, English still has its spell on learners as can be seen from high scores on English motivation in the statistical evidence in the previous chapter. The general perception of international English in society proved to have massive influence on learners. For these learners, Yashima’s (2002) concept of international posture would best describe the tendency of the students to be attracted to English because of its international façade: “English symbolized the world around [their country], something that connected them to foreign countries and or foreigners...with whom they can communicate by using English” (p. 57).

As students in the university made an active choice to learn languages, we can see that their ideal self was influenced by their future goals. While English ideal self is higher than other FL as shown in quantitative data and as generally agreed by most students’ interview accounts, the choices students made were diverse. English did not have monopoly position in Thai university education. Students still saw the opportunities other FLs offer. For them, English was the most important language, but knowing other FLs offered possibilities they could not ignore and some decided that English could wait.

6.3.2 English Ought-to Self

As this study was conducted with language major students and students from English medium college, it is not surprising that students scored high on L2 English motivation. However, when investigating ought-to self or another motivational construct described by Dörnyei (2009b, p. 29) as “the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes,” these learners were found to be driven not only by the desire to be successful but also by the fear of failure. Based on the interviews, the English ought-to self could be seen in students’ high prevention focus (to avoid negative outcomes). The ought-to self was observed while students reflected on both immediate and distant goals.

Regarding the immediate goals, students put effort on English studying to avoid undesired results like their concern for grades, exams and classroom competition (fear of losing face and being compared with other fellow students). Some of them, such as S4 and S5, felt the need to push themselves up to the classroom standard.

“The reason I try to improve my English-speaking is because of peer pressure. My friends can speak English but I can’t. I can do the exams but I can’t speak English. If I graduate, what job can I do if I can’t speak English.” (S4)

“In the second year, I had more speaking classes and that was when I realized other people could speak English better than I did. In the first year, I got very good grades because the focus was on grammar. I was not good at speaking though. I tried very hard to improve my speaking so that I would not be left behind” (S5).

Another student, S2, seemed to have high English ideal self but her narrative turned out to be more of the ought-to self. She said she always wanted to study English because it was an international language. She thought she would have to use English in

the future, but in her narrative about English learning experience, the story was told otherwise.

“For English, it is ok for me. I have not used it for a while. But I still want to study more because it is important. [...] I never have a long-term future goal for English. I never think about how I am going to make use of English in the future. What I thought about English is that ‘Oh, there will be an exam. Or the teacher will make us speak in front of the class.’ I studied English just to pass the exams ”. (S2)

Expectation still had an impact on the students’ decision and motivation towards the language although students appeared to be independent in choosing subjects of their study. Some of them seemed to study English because other people stressed its importance. The student (S5) was influenced by her family’s expectation but she also saw the advantages if she followed their guidance. Similar to Chen’s study (2012), English ought-to self is a mixture between both promotion and prevention focus. The student took her family’s expectation as her own future goal.

“I love studying English. I practice speaking English everyday with myself in front of the mirror. My uncle’s job involves international trade and he told me that if I study languages, there were no professional skills like doctor or other careers. Many jobs require foreign language ability but most of them are not good jobs. I have to be ‘cream de la cream’ because only those with the best scores and skills get well-paid jobs. I’m afraid that I will be unemployed. I have to practice English” (S5).

Although students had high ideal self, the ought-to self generated from the family’s expectation appeared to interfere the process of learning. The family’s attempt to control student’s choice about her future career appeared to affect and hinder her motivation to fully invest in the direction of her English education. According to student

(S5), who was in her third year by the time of the interview and had to decide on the subjects she wanted to enroll in the fourth year, found that the pressure she felt from her family made her indecisive—whether to choose academic English or English for career. Had she been allowed to follow her own plan, she would not be reluctant to choose the subjects that would suit her dream future career. The lack of future goal detained her from investing in the right subjects. She said she could not decide because of her family's intervention.

“I do not know what I want to do in the future yet. There are too many things I want to try but still feel afraid. Whenever I come up with the idea of my future career, my parents always criticize my choices and tell me the downsides of the jobs. For example, I told them I wanted to be a flight attendant or a tour guide. Then they told me ‘oh, flight attendant is not a good choice. You have to work on the plane. That is not safe. Oh, tour guides are not good either. I have been talking with people in the business and received negative feedback from them.’ It is always like this. They want me to become a teacher but that is not what I want. Now I am tired of thinking. I do not want to plan for my future anymore.” (S5)

According to the excerpt above, despite the fact that English came across as ‘a must’ for everyone, students seemed to be uncertain about their career because English is so widely needed in general. According to them, there were too many possibilities and too many alternatives.

Apart from family influence, ought-to self was also found in students' facing expectations from society in general. The perceived lack of English competence caused considerable pressure on them. They feared that they could not meet the expectations.

They feared being judged negatively if they got a degree in English but failed to use the language appropriately in a real situation. Student S6 said:

“Even bad students in Accounting have basic professional skills to get by. But if we (English major students) do not understand spoken English or cannot speak English fluently, we are useless. Other people will think, ‘How come? You are studying language. If you cannot speak the language, what have you been doing in the college?’”(S6)

Student S3 raised an interesting point about English. In his opinion, not knowing English comes at a cost. But from his perspective, it seemed that English was both an opportunity and a threat. While English was portrayed as a medium to connect with people from the outside world, he was fully aware that English also created possibilities and career opportunities for people from neighbor countries that he perceived as competitors. He thought that English proficiency might attract employers to prefer non-Thai workers to Thai people. He was a newly Japanese major graduate and now a Japanese teacher. Although intended as an exaggeration, his opinion sounded extreme in terms of English education.

“English should be our mother tongue by now. Other countries like Philippines, Vietnam, Malaysia, they speak English better than us. I always told my students ‘if you struggle with Japanese, you can discontinue Japanese learning, but you have to be good at English.’ I saw these students and I wondered how they could earn a living if they cannot speak English” (S3).

This is the feared future self that the interviewee did not want to become—to be losing out in the job market. In his opinion, most Thais will be challenged by the regional economic integration. He did not only feel for himself but for society at large,

which might be to some extent influenced by the nature of Thai collective society with a strong sense of in-group and out-group. The ought-to self was displayed as the interviewee contemplated the distant goal with the urge to be proficient in English so that Thai people would not lose their jobs to foreigners. This somehow might be related to nationalism (River, 2011, 2012; Islam, Lamb & Chambers, 2013), which is beyond the scope of this study.

While ought-to self is important for some students as a driving force for their immediate goals like grades, exams, classroom performance, a lot of interviewees voiced their concerns about future career and losing out their job to non-Thai workers. Family expectation also caused inner conflict on adult learners and might hinder their motivation if they were forced to learn what they do not like. Despite their originally high ideal self in the language, doubt in ones' decision caused by family interference shaken their confidence and impede investment in language learning. Taguchi et al. (2009) and Kormos et al. (2011) observed that the construct of ought-to self might be questionable in Asian context where family expectation may be more influential in learners' motivational thinking.

6.3.3 L3 Ideal Self

Unlike learning English that was familiar to most students since pre-university education, learning another language is different as learners had to explore unknown linguistic challenges. Learning a third language is a daring move for students who experience the language for the first time in university. They did not know whether they would like it or not until they get involved in the process of learning. At university,

students might feel stuck when they found the third language they choose was not what they really wanted or could not see the point to continue learning. Unlike English, the third language was spoken in much narrower circles, which means less chances for communication and real situation practice unless learners immerse themselves in the target language environment.

Although Dörnyei et al. (2006) argued that there has been a decrease in motivation to learn languages other than English because students feel that knowing English is enough, the result from this study is different. The third language was perceived as desirable for both English and non-English majors. But at the same time, this reflects learners' anxiety that English only is not enough as English becomes the language everyone knows and seems to lose its premium value (Grin, 2001).

The findings showed that students of an L3 had a powerful vision of ideal self to sustain their learning effort despite the presence of global English. There were many reasons students were motivated to learn an L3, for example, success in learning, a clear professional goal, financial rewards, and integrative orientation.

The self-perceived lack of competence in English was one of the reasons some students decided to divert their effort from English to an L3. Investment in an L3 became an alternative for students who did not want to study science or mathematics but did not do well in English either. The sense of achievement and language competence reinforced R1's confidence and increased her L3 ideal self, which was the success she had never experienced in English classes.

"No matter how I try, I just could not get English. I have studied English from nursery but just started learning Japanese at university. It had been less than four years for Japanese and now I know more Japanese than English". (R1)

One of the reasons language learners decided to invest in the third language might lie in fact that they perceived the L3 as a language of opportunity. McKay (2012) remarked about the impact of global English as creating an economic divide and inequality of access to English education because some families might not be able to afford the private lessons for their children. When they came to university, students such as S3 had diverse background knowledge in English, but everyone can have a fresh start in the third language.

“We have different background knowledge in English. But for the third language, everyone is equal. We don’t feel intimidated because everyone faces difficulties all the same.” (S3)

For some learners, although a third language was not their first choice, their attitudes changed after a year of study. Students reported that after giving it a try at the new language, they felt they liked it, especially those with satisfactory performance. Some students revealed that actually they wanted to study English but could not because the English major is more competitive and their scores were not high enough. These students, such as S4, were those with some degree of English proficiency and positive attitudes towards language learning that they could transfer to L3.

“I do not like Chinese from the start because I always wanted to study in English major. But when I studied Chinese, I love it. Even though I have not studied Chinese before in high school like some of my classmates, I had the highest score in the last exam. I got full scores” (S4).

The excerpt above also showed that the sense of achievement was a crucial factor that motivated the student to invest more in language learning. Although student

S4 still in her first year and have not had a clear plan for her future career, she expressed full commitment in studying Chinese and her intention to have Chinese-related work.

“Since I have studied Chinese, I have no regret for not studying English. Chinese is going to be widespread in Asia and it will help me become successful on a regional level. English is a basic language because a lot of people use it, but it is not a key to success.” (S4)

Students with a clear professional goal were also found to have strong ideal self. Determination to pursue their dream career resulted in their full commitment with L3 learning. Students could plan the direction of their study to accommodate their goal. Student S1 indicated very highly motivated behaviour in improving his Korean skills:

“If I do not understand something in the lessons, I will read until I know what that means. When the teacher teaches us how to pronounce correctly, I will practice and remember even slight detail in order to sound like native speakers. But most of my friends just do not care. I want to be a Korean teacher. I have to get everything right” (S1).

During his third year, he also took a one year course in South Korea by self-funding and planned to pursue the graduate degree there again after his graduation. The student showed active involvement in the language by investing time, money, and effort. His attempt to reach the ideal self state of being a qualified Korean teacher resulted in his devotion in the process of Korean learning. Clear future-self image was obvious. His case suggested that vision of future self is very important and seems to be a strong predictor for motivated learning behavior as Dörnyei (2009) posits that “elaborate and vivid future self image” is crucial condition that promotes the person’s ideal self (p. 19).

In relation to ASEAN economic integration, L3 students developed an ideal self, visualizing themselves on a smooth path to work in competitive economic scenario without any threats from foreign labor. They felt that knowing an L3 provided them with the sense of security and certainty because employment will be limited to those who are literate in that particular language. Therefore, S6 and S3 considered themselves having that advantage over the English-speaking majority.

“ASEAN will make it difficult for Thai people to get a job. Our English is poor. We cannot compete with other countries. But I know Japanese. This is not going to be any problems for me at all” (S6).

“Japanese is necessary and useful. At least if my English is poor, I have the advantage of knowing Japanese. I can work in different market. Everybody can speak English. I have access to another world because I know Japanese. I will look smart in the eyes of other people” (S3).

Some other students might not have such strong future-self image but most of them were motivated by future financial rewards. The establishment of overseas companies and foreign investment in the country create jobs and thus result in high demand for people proficient in that particular language. Some students, such as S3, therefore, viewed studying L3 as increasing opportunities for their future career, which motivated them to attain the required proficiency. Chen’s study (2012) found similar motives that help students develop ideal self when they realized the future use of the language. “Pragmatic benefits associated with being able to speak the L2 in personal, social or professional contexts have been internalized into one’s ideal self” (p. 52).

“I started from low grade in Japanese. I almost got D. The first semester I got only C or C+. After that, I could adapt myself to the language and teaching style, so I

got A or B. I feel that I can do it. Then, I study harder telling myself ‘Think of the future. This language is worth a lot of money. [...] I also look at the seniors who were granted scholarship to study in Japan and get high salary job after they graduated. Some of them are interpreter with 2-3 grand salaries. I use this as a driving force. I want to be like them, so I tell myself ‘keep going.’” (S3)

As can be seen in the extract above, S3 had economic motives for learning Japanese. Given his perception of the language profession scenario in Thailand, he felt the pressing need for him to invest efforts in learning due to financial rewards and opportunities. Role models are very important in shaping students’ ideal self as students based their desired self-image on the person they wish to become. Similar findings were seen in Chen’s (2012) study with Taiwanese students. The researcher found that students developed the ought-to self to ideal self, based on the person they model after.

Age is another factor influencing students’ ideal self. As university students, learners foresaw their future use of the language in their profession. The sense of responsibility forced them to take learning more seriously, with more planning and direction. Third year and fourth year students, such as S2 and S3, tended to be more concerned about how to narrow the gap between their actual abilities and what the employers required of them.

“Korean is the language for real life profession. I am a grown up now. I have to use Korean in my career. I tried to learn as much as possible to make sense of Korean.” (S2)

“Japanese companies will pay you really well. Your salaries start at the same rate with engineers, which is higher than normal rate for language students. But you have to be knowledgeable otherwise they are not going to hire you.” (S3).

While integrativeness was expected to be one of the main reasons for learning the third language as a major, the findings revealed that when it came to formal education, students such as S4 did not risk future unemployment to study the language they like. The account of their personal preference of cultural products was taken to the minimum. “I like Korean pop culture and always want to study Korean. But I think about my future career, so I decide to study Chinese major instead because the demand for Chinese language is much more” (S4). However, the student did not totally abandon her desire to learn the language. She devoted her time for self-study and immersed herself in all kinds of cultural products available to her—mostly via Internet.

“I bought the books and teach myself Korean. I watch Korean series, music videos and listen to Korean music. I achieve limited proficiency in Korean. I can exchange simple conversation with my Chinese native speaker teacher who can speak Korean. I understand some dialogues in Korean series and I wish to meet Korean people and communicate with them. (What will you talk to them?) About Korean superstars” (S4).

Apart from integrative orientation that caused learners to acquire L3 outside formal education setting, ethnic background of learners was also one of the reasons students were motivated to learn. Chinese immigrants have long been assimilated and contributed to the large population of Thailand over decades. It is now indistinguishable from the majority of Thai people. Students with Chinese heritage background attributed some of reasons they want to study Chinese language to their family’s origin. Similar results echoed in Xie’s (2011) study that found relationship between ideal self and integrativeness, which she described as the desire to acculturate into one’s own heritage culture: “integrativeness and ideal self are rarely separable because acculturation with Chinese people is an integral part in the process to fulfill [ideal self] [due to] their close

affinity with the Chinese community biologically and sociopsychologically” (p. 103).

Student S5 said,

“I choose Chinese because my family is of Chinese origin. My grandparents speak Chinese [dialect]. I hear them speak and wish that I could speak Chinese too. I can speak Chinese dialect a little but this made me want to study Mandarin Chinese too. My family thinks it is a good idea to learn Chinese as well. Moreover, Chinese is very popular nowadays.” (S5)

Ideal self also dramatically increases after the trip to a foreign country. The same student (S5) claimed that her one-month experience in China affected her motivation to learn Chinese. After she came back, she invested more in the language, practicing and taking extra courses at private institution.

“I have been there only a month but I improved a lot. I feel that Chinese is attractive to me more than before. I can speak fluently. Once a Chinese shopkeeper mistook me for a Chinese. I learned many new vocabularies and can retain them for a long time. After I came back, the semester just started and the teacher asked everyone to introduce oneself. The teacher gave me compliment that I spoke really well. I do not think I change much but my accent improves a lot. When I had speaking or reading tests, I got full scores.” (S5)

6.3.4 L3 Ought-to self

For L3 learners, interview data supports statistical evidence that they had high ought-to self in L3 compared to English. Chinese, Korean and Japanese ought-to self

scores did not differ from those of English. Ought-to self is related more to prevention focus, suggesting the necessity to learn and relying more on the external influences.

During the long process of learning, family expectation seemed to have less influence on the students' ought-to self compared to other Asian countries with a Confucius heritage culture like China, Taiwan or Japan. Thai students did not appear to have the same degree of obligations towards family pride or success. Students received advice from their family in choosing the language, but once they have made their decision, they appeared to take all the responsibilities on themselves. Most students showed inclination to follow their dream and interest.

Strong ought-to self was observed in students who primarily learned the L3 not by their own choice. Some of these students could not attend English major because their admission scores were not high enough. Some were influenced by their parents. Their initial responses to the new language were dislike, boredom, and anxiety. However, most of these students reported obvious change in their attitudes after they giving it a try, resulting in increased motivation.

As stated earlier, studying an L3 is like exploring a new territory. Learners had no idea what it would be like. According to students' narrative accounts, ought-to self is the result of students' negative resistance towards a new language when they found out that it was not what they expected, but they could not drop the subject. The unfamiliar alphabets and complicated grammar structures were the major causes of discouragement for S3, S2 and S4 to continue studying the new language.

"I had never seen Japanese characters before. I didn't even know if they would have students without basic knowledge like me to study in Japanese major because other students had already studied Japanese in their high school. [...] I was really

stressed. It was so difficult. But as the semester passed, I became more familiar with the language and the teachers' style of teaching. Learning Japanese is easy and fun" (S3).

"I wanted to study Political Science but my scores was only enough to get me in Korean major. I had no idea what Korean was like. The first time I saw Korean characters was in classroom. I did not choose Korean major because of the Korean singers and that stuff. I just thought it was a new language. I just wanted to learn something new." (S2)

"I don't want to study Chinese at all. I wanted to study Korean because I like Korean pop music. Then I think about my future career that Chinese would be more useful." (S4)

At university, choosing a major is very important decision. It means a lot to students because it might affect their career plan. Students who did not have enough prior information about the language they choose as their major or took the wrong decision based on advice of others might have to spend four years studying what they were not really interested in. Thus, when the students found themselves in such situation, they had only two choices—they could change their major in the next academic year or admit the consequence of their decision and go on with their study. There were both cases of students in this study.

The students who made up their mind to continue studying L3 despite the initial difficulties and negative experience, had expressed strong ought-to self at the beginning of the course. After that, they used different strategies to overcome learning difficulties and negative feeling they had with the language. Student S3 told the researcher he thought he made a wrong decision to study Japanese and considered changing the

major. However, the idea of wasting a year to begin in another major kept him from changing the major.

“I am quite an old-fashioned people. I did not want to waste my time. I did not want to start again. I hate to start again and again. It was my own decision. I have made a choice. I have to live with it. Yes, it was difficult. I was shocked when I first encountered Japanese, but later on I could adapt myself” (S3).

S3 had to study the third language because he was afraid of negative outcomes like being seen as a failure or graduate a year later if he changed his major. This indicated ought-to self at the beginning of university life as a learner of the third language. Positive thinking and self-reasoning were the strategies some students used to deal with the desire to drop out. They talked themselves into thinking that they had made the right choice. “Japanese is a difficult language. Sometimes I want to give up but I kept telling myself the reward is worth a try.” (S3)

One reason for strong L3 ought-to self might be conditioned by classroom management. The interview data showed that students’ active learning was caused by regular quizzes and the teacher’s strictness. Students were driven by the fear of failing the tests. According to the same student, S3, the teacher quizzed them in every class. Thus, they (S3, S6, S11) had to revise the lesson almost everyday.

“We do not have homework, but we revise Japanese everyday helping each other among friends. The teacher gave us a test in every class.” (S3)

“I have to write down Japanese characters until I remember. I put vocabulary lists on the wall. [...] I do not have good memory so I have to work hard.” (S7)

“If we don’t know the answer when the teacher asks, he will get angry and scold us.” (S11).

For some students, experience abroad forced them to learn the TL. Student S5 told her story of taking a course in China for one month but did not prepare herself to be in Chinese speaking community, thinking she could use English. However, the feeling of alienation pushed her to learn the language as quickly as she could in order to survive there. She found that the ability to understand or communicate in Chinese was imperative. Such environment proved to benefit her L3 learning.

“The Chinese people are like us [Thai people]. They do not speak English. When I was there, they arranged a Chinese buddy for everyone. I took only one Chinese course from Thailand which was not enough to make myself understood, but I didn’t worry much. I was kind of confident with my English. But when I spoke English to them, no one came near me. They treated me like an outsider. They were like Thai people who are afraid to talk with foreigners. The fact that I spoke English put them off. No one tried to befriend me. I was very lonely. I had to study very hard to get my way around.” (S5)

While most students decided to continue studying L3, one student (S7) changed her major in the following year. Ought-to self alone is not enough to keep students from dropping out. While most students prefer to continue studying giving themselves reasons to stay, student S7 just could not find any reason to continue study Korean. She studied Japanese in high school but in university she chose Korean because she thought it would not be difficult due to linguistic closeness between Japanese and Korean. However, when she experimented with Korean for a year, she could not convince herself to carry on.

“I thought Korean would be easy but it isn’t. It’s really different from Japanese. Japanese seems more difficult because there are a lot to remember. But with frequent revision, it is easy to remember. Korean is more confusing. The characters look the same to me. I found it difficult to recognize the words. [...] I gave myself a chance to study Korean, but it turned out that it was not for me.” (S7)

Although she reported her preference in Korean cultural products to Japanese, that was just for entertaining purpose. No learning attempt was made in her consuming of the Korean cultural products. She did not want to invest in the language anymore.

“I like Korean game shows, dancing, music and TV programs. Studying language make me enjoy more when I watch Korean TV programs. I can understand some words. But I won’t study Korean again. One year is enough. It’s difficult. I don’t think it will have any use.”(S7)

The reasons behind her lack of interest in Korean were like many other students—she did not want to invest in the language she thought did not have economic value.

“I enroll in English every semester. I study English as a minor subject. Both languages [English and Japanese] are important but English is the most important language because people around the world use English. [...] Japanese is the second largest market in the world. I feel assured [of the future prospect] to study this language” (S7).

In conclusion, L3 motivational constructions—ideal self and ought-to self—appeared to be somewhat overlapping concept as learners internalized ought-to self to the degree that it became ideal self. This is similar to what Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) explained that between ideal self and ought-to self there are both harmony and conflict

because ideal self is “both privately conceptualised and socially influenced’ (p. 625). Despite initial dislike for the new language, most of them felt satisfied with the outcomes of their perseverance and could reach the ideal self state, seeing themselves achieve the desired results. It was thus necessary for them to incorporate both ought-to and ideal self.

6.3.5 FL Anxiety

The aim of this section is to find factors causing different levels of FLA across languages. The more languages involved, the more complex the issues need to be dealt with as the dynamic nature of language learning allowed the different factors to play a role depending on the context. Based on Ushioda’s (2009) the person-in-context relational view, FLA was found to be context dependent.

The interviewees, despite being language majors or English medium programs, were found to suffer from varying degrees of FLA. As students of language-oriented programs, the participants could be considered advanced language learners. Toth (2010, 2011) situated the research among advanced FL learners and found that experience and proficiency are not always reliable predictors of anxiety as proposed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a, 1993b). Some interviewee despite their high motivation and investment still reported considerable degree of anxiety both in-class and outside-class situations.

As the participants were simultaneous language learners, the aspect of stability was also investigated. Some students appeared to be stress-free in one language but very anxious in another, suggesting possible factors behind their anxiety in particular

language. Learners' first-hand experiences related to their language use and FLA were asked whether their FLA was context-dependent and varied in different situations.

The students' language domains were quite limited. Most of interactions occurred in classroom setting and occasionally brief conversation with foreigners outside class. Regarding classroom anxiety, students were asked to compare teaching styles and classroom management in different language classes. The interview data showed that students did not think there were any differences in terms of teaching methods, but some did feel that classroom atmosphere was different for some languages.

Given students' account on English, it was found to be the least anxiety-provoking language among most interviewees, which confirmed the statistical evidence in chapter 4. Although Dewaele (2002) suggested that his Dutch L1 learners had higher levels of anxiety when learning French L2, possibly for social and historical reasons, than when learning additional languages, the different outcome might be due to the L2 being investigated. In the present study, the L2 was English and with its global status, this might affect the results. As the first FL acquired and used in a wider circle than other L3s, it was the last resource students such as S3 and S9 said they would draw on if they faced difficulties in communication in other FL.

“My English isn't any better than Japanese. [...] I feel more comfortable to speak in English than Japanese. This might be because I live with it longer, I feel more familiar with English.” (S3)

However, despite English being the language most students were familiar with, among L3 learners there seemed to be a problem about the lack of use, resulting in some students' concerns about their English attrition. They insist on their anxiety-free state

but felt their limited language repertoire caused by the lack of use made it difficult for them to communicate in English. Most L3 learners, such as S1, seemed to have low degree of English anxiety although they lacked automaticity.

“I wanted to say something but I couldn’t. I was disappointed with myself. But I never feel anxious to speak English. It was the absence of use and the interference from Korean language that make it hard for me to express my thought in English. All of my efforts are put into Korean” (S1)

The multiple language learners attributed their cross-linguistic awareness as the major reason they did not feel anxious either in English or any other L3s. With varying degree of proficiency in each language they know, learners appeared to cope with anxiety by using their linguistic resources to carry on the conversation.

Similar to Toth’s (2010) study that the researcher found advanced English students had less anxiety when speaking English with foreigners outside classroom context. Multiple language students, such as S14, also indicated less anxiety outside class, which they attributed to lower expectation from the interlocutor and less anxiety-provoking situation. In the real life situation, mistakes were more acceptable and the lack of fluency did not seem to be a major problem. “We don’t have to think about grammar. We can communicate using keywords. They will understand us if we choose the right words.” (S14)

However, when it came to classroom activities, these advanced learners felt more anxious to answer either voluntarily or being called upon. Like many previous studies, fear of negative evaluations was a major cause of anxiety in English class (Horwitz et al., 1986). Student S2 and S7 said to experience classroom anxiety.

“I’m nervous to give presentation in front of the class or answer the question posed by the teacher.” (S2)

“I’m afraid of giving the wrong answer and embarrassing myself in front of my classmates” (S7)

Toth (2010, 2011) argued that competition was another main factor that causes high anxiety in classroom among advanced learners as the content was more difficult and the classmates were more competitive than what they had experienced in high school. This might to some degree cause more stress. In this study, students with lower perceived-competence than their classmates felt pressured to speak in the presence of the audience. The stakes were too high for students like S5 to let fellow students hear their imperfect English.

“In English class, we are more tensed. I think this is because we have unequal English background knowledge. Some friends studied from very high standard schools. Some were exchange students. They speak English fluently with perfect accent. The gap is too wide. That’s why in English class, not many of us volunteer the answers.” (S5)

Not only this could be interpreted as competition, Zhong (2013) described similar situations in Hong Kong and argued that the concept of “face” was another possible interpretation of students’ reluctance to speak up. Her interpretation could be said to ring true in the Thai context as well.

In their view, the way to gain “face” was through using accurate and correct English. Speaking up in front of others with errors in their English was regarded as running the risk of being judged negatively by their peers and losing face. Inaccurate English will tarnish their reputations and put them to shame. This fear of making mistakes and losing face meant they did not have the intention to speak up but chose to remain silent in class (2013, p. 746).

While teachers were reported to be the source of anxiety in many studies (e.g., Toth, 2011), students, such as S7 and S2, in this study did not attribute their English anxiety to teachers. They thought English teachers, especially native speakers were fun, friendly and more open-minded than teachers of other FLs.

“Westerners are not strict. Not at all. I don’t feel stressed at all. [...] They encourage students to express their opinion.” (S7)

“I like foreign [English] teachers. They are not strict with grammar. [...] In other language classes, the teachers are also kind, but I can feel a bit distance between teacher and students” (S2)

However, as the teaching methods are still the teacher-front with relatively large size of class, some students rarely had chances to practice speaking, several interviewees hesitated to say whether they were anxious or not. They had know-how but very little experience. Students such as S2 attributed the lack of practice as the source of anxiety.

“I don’t have many chances to speak with foreigners. I once gave up my seat to a foreigner on the sky train. I dared not to engage in the conversation she tried to initiate. I just made a brief answer. I understood what she said but fear that if I engaged myself more in the conversation, I might not be able to understand more difficult topics. If I had more chance to speak English, I would not feel anxious.” (S2)

The Japanese FL learners were the most intriguing. While Japanese ideal self score was the second highest with no significant difference from English ideal self score, Japanese FLA scores was also the highest, which suggests some latent variables behind this puzzling result. According to Papi (2010), ideal self negatively correlates

with FLA while ought-to self strongly related to anxiety. It is thus curious why high ideal self in Japanese did not result in low level of anxiety as it should be. With this exceptional result, the emphasis will be put on Japanese.

Japanese was found to be the most anxiety-provoking language according to the statistical results. The interviews shed some light on this issue. Students attributed their classroom anxiety to language difficulties, classroom environment and teachers. Unlike English where students deeply felt the sense of competition among classmates, Japanese class seemed to promote more solidarity. Learners perceived the process of learning Japanese as teamwork. S12 and S3 pointed out that they could not survive on their own.

“No one understood what the teacher was saying. Those who can grasp some pieces and bits translated for the rest of us.” (S12)

“We help each other [with learning]. We don’t compete against each other because everyone is struggling. No one is better than others. We are in the same level.” (S3)

Japanese was perceived by most interviewees as a difficult language. Most students attributed their anxiety to the language difficulties, especially listening and speaking.

“I found the teacher at the open market. He talked to me but I didn’t understand him. I was stunned. He talked very fast.” (S3)

“I feel Japanese is more stressful than English. English structure is similar to Thai. [...] Japanese is difficult in terms of usage. The structure is not too complicated to understand but what make it difficult is Japanese people, not the language. There are varieties of expressions and grammar rules. I’ve studied a great deal but still I couldn’t

use it appropriately. I don't know which register to use in which situation. Speaking with Japanese people is difficult.” (S3)

Curiously enough, most Japanese student interviewees agreed that Japanese class had a very unique learning environment. King studied Japanese learners' silence and noted that “cultural differences patently do exist, and, in conjunction with other variables, do affect learner behavior” (2013, p. 327). In this study, students felt that Japanese was not just the language class. They needed to learn how to behave in front of their Japanese teachers. Students thus were very careful they might break some cultural codes. Although most students thought their Japanese teachers were kind, they felt that cultural differences somehow created distance and tension in class.

“Japanese class is more formal. We need to be disciplined according to the teachers' rules. Some teachers are very kind but very serious. English class is more relaxing, the way I want it to be.” (S7)

A student (S10) gave evidence of how he perceived Japanese class to be more formal than other classes by comparing Japanese class with English class. He gave an example of his direct experience how teachers react to the same situation. In Japanese class, the teacher fell from the chair and students laughed. The teacher did not think it was funny. “He said it was not a proper reaction he expected from us. We should respect him more, not laugh at him.” (S10) In contrast, the same student compared similar event in his English class. An English teacher also fell from his chair. “The teacher laughed with us and then got up. He playfully told us not to tell anyone about this” (S10). This might be similar to what Apple et al. (2013) explained for Japanese students in their motivation study, “as a Confucian-influenced country, Japan and Japanese society has traditionally highlighted the importance of knowing one's societal

role and performing to one's utmost to achieve the expectations of that role (e.g., Heine et al., 2001; Apple, Falout & Hill, 2013). Teachers and students thus have a very clear role and have to behave one's self according to their role.

The students' light-heartedness clashed with their Japanese teacher's view that order was crucial and expected students to act accordingly in class. Students also noted that they had a specific subject like Japanese culture to educate students about Japanese concept of politeness, which was considered crucial when working with Japanese people or in Japanese organization. The sense of social hierarchy was well known by all Japanese students in the interviews. Cultural differences thus were attributed to be one of the major causes of anxiety in Japanese class.

In relation to culture, the teachers also played important role in students' anxiety. Mettewie (2004) noted, "the attitude towards the foreign language teacher determines to a large extent the attitude towards the FL, especially for languages which are rare in the usual linguistic landscape of the learners" (as cited from Dewaele, 2009, p. 177). This proved to be true in this study as teachers can have a profound effect on students' anxiety. The students constantly referred to their teacher when asked about their attitudes towards Japanese. Students talked about certain characteristic commonly shared by native Japanese teachers with strong national identity. Japanese teachers were perceived by students as punctual, hard working and strict. Students might be lagging in discipline in other subjects but in Japanese class they felt they have to behave.

"I feel that Japanese teachers are kind but stricter and more reserved." (S3)

"All Japanese teachers are very punctual. If we're late, the teachers will deduct our attendant score." (S7)

Students often compared their Japanese teachers (mostly native speakers) with English teachers. S7 said she felt free to ask question in English class but not in Japanese class.

“In Japanese class, I have to think again and again whether it is appropriate to ask. [...] I’m afraid I might ask stupid questions. [...] Sometimes, the teacher would not give the answer and told us to find out on our own.” (S7)

Language of instruction was also found to play a major role in causing anxiety. The interviewee, although, reported the advantages of having Japanese as the language of instruction in class, thought that the classroom policy of Japanese language only was more stressful.

“The teachers do not speak other languages in class except Japanese. In the first year, we sometimes studied with Thai teachers, which I think is good. Because if we have any questions about grammars, Thai teachers can explain to us clearly in Thai. [...] but from the second year onward, we never had chance to study with Thai teachers anymore. We were handed over to Japanese teachers who talked all day long in Japanese. This is good because we listen to Japanese all day. The language might somehow seep into our head. But when we have problems, it is difficult to communicate with Japanese teachers. We don’t get the same clear explanation as we had from Thai teachers. Sometimes I didn’t even know if I got message right.” (S3)

Compared with Japanese learners, Chinese and Korean learners seemed to suffer less from classroom anxiety. It is remarkable that according to the interview, both Chinese and Korean students did not indicate the same degree of weariness in learning as found in Japanese students. One possible reason is that Chinese and Korean might be slightly easier for Thai learners as S8, S5 and S2 indicated.

“Chinese is easier than English. There is no tense as in Thai.” (S8)

“I think Chinese is not difficult. It is easy for Thai people to learn because it’s close to Thai language. The sentence structure is the same. Unlike English that you need to be skillful [in intonation and pronunciation] to make yourself understood, Chinese has tones as in Thai. If you speak in the right tone, they [Chinese speakers] will understand you right away.” (S5)

“Korean has many registers. If we speak with different people, we used different terms. It is the same as in Thai. We have different pronouns and different words for different people.” (S2)

Moreover, Chinese and Korean learners seemed to find the learning of the languages more pleasant. In case of Chinese, students with Chinese origin reported to feel more connected with the language of their heritage culture even though the language was not prevalent in their family and social circle anymore.

“My family is Chinese descendants. I want to study Chinese although in this generation no one can speak Chinese.” (S14)

For most Korean learners, their positive feeling towards the language seemed to derive from their pleasure of consuming cultural products. Based on the interviews, the Korean Wave had a great effect on learners’ perception of the language. With the help of the Internet, students could easily get access to all kinds of entertainment productions they liked, which significantly increased their exposure to the TL. Either those who studied Korean as a major subject, as electives, or self-study indicated high degree of interest in Korean pop culture.

“I studied Japanese but I prefer Korean entertainment. It is more palatable to me.” (S7)

“I like both Chinese and Korean music. Although I studied in Chinese major, I even know more about Korean culture than Chinese culture because I spend more time on Korean media.” (S4)

Korean major students also indicated high levels of learner autonomy by frequent practice of Korean outside class. They found it enjoyable to watch Korean series and listen to Korean music and practicing the language at the same time. These activities were carried on effortlessly. The same phenomenon was seen in Henry’s (2013, 2014) studies on Swedish students of English who found English outside classroom contexts more practical and enjoyable. The difference was that the participants in Henry’s felt that English in classroom context was boring while learners of Korean in the current study enjoyed Korean both in class and outside class.

“I don’t feel bored. I feel challenging studying Korean. It’s the new language. It’s complicated but I never felt like giving up when I face difficulties. I just feel that I need to try more.”(S2)

Regarding teachers and language of instruction, the ratio for Thai and non-Thai teachers were more balanced in Chinese and Korean department. Students were equally taught by both Thai and non-Thai teachers compared with more than 80% of Japanese speaker teachers. This might be one of the reasons why Chinese and Korean students felt less anxious than their Japanese counterparts.

One more reason that Chinese and Korean students were less anxious than Japanese students might be due to the fact that they had much less frequent exams.

Japanese students reported of having a quiz every time they met the teachers while none of Chinese and Korean students reported such frequent exams.

However, although the statistical results showed that Chinese anxiety scores did not significantly differ from Japanese scores, none of the interviewees indicated obvious sign of anxiety in Chinese, but they did feel anxious in English. But most interviewees reported they chose to study Chinese based on their parents' advice and the bright opportunities Chinese seemed to offer. According to Papi (2010) who found that ought-to self directly related to anxiety, it is possible to conclude that high anxiety in Chinese was due to the fact that learners learned Chinese just to avoid negative outcomes or meet others' expectation.

“If I am to learn any FLs, it will be because I like them. But for Chinese, I learned it out of necessity. Actually, I wanted to study Korean, but mom told me Chinese market was larger. I think I like Chinese. But I like Korean the most. It's a pity that if I chose the language I like, I would have done much better.” (S8)

Korean language popularity among adolescent language learners was found to be the major factor that reduced learners' anxiety due to their exposure to the TL's cultural products and their positive attitudes towards the language. Moreover, the Korean language seemed to offer value attached to its image as new and cool language associated with youth culture and modernity. This might answer the question why Korean anxiety is significantly lower than Japanese and Chinese.

Despite the fact that students had varying degree of anxiety across languages, it is noteworthy to point out that all Asian language learners seemed to have lesser degree of competition in class compared to English. Based on the interview data, students

seemed to feel they were on a more equal basis. A student (S5) shared her observation when she was in English and Chinese class.

“Everyone was a new learner of Chinese. No one knew the language before. No one felt inferior. But English has been taught for many years. We learned English from a very young age. It might be embarrassing to make mistakes in English, so most remain silent in English class. But in Chinese or other new language classes, we freshly started together, I noticed that there was a feeling that it doesn’t matter to make mistakes because it’s not only me, other people also don’t know either. So it isn’t embarrassing to speak. I felt that everyone competed to gain the teacher’s attention and answered the questions more. They don’t care about mistakes. This is different from English class where my classmates normally don’t volunteer the answer unless they’re really sure about it. [...] It’s like an inferior complex. That’s why we’re anxious. If it is a new language, we don’t feel embarrassed. We just speak up and have fun. We don’t take it seriously. But not for English.” (S5)

Students somehow might feel the socio-economic status tied to English, which also related to their self-image. As mentioned earlier, English proficiency to some degree was the indicator of students’ family background. Well to do family might be able to provide their kids with private courses and opportunities of going abroad, resulting in unequal language capital in most students.

6.3.6 Career-related Anxiety

Each year, universities across the country generate a great number of language graduates. Career-based anxiety seemed to be a precise indicator of the feeling of uneasiness to communicate, not in classroom, nor in real life situations, but in the

working context. None of the anxiety literature investigated final-year students and their language apprehension, which arise from students' feeling of uncertainty about what they might face in the prospect careers.

Anxiety is clearly linked to future career as most students reported to have concerns for their future as language professionals. Like many excerpts shown earlier, career choice plays an important part in students' investment in the language education. Sometimes the economic reasons mattered even more than personal preference. As discussed earlier, ought-to self was internalized to become the person's ideal self. The desire to achieve TL proficiency was stimulated by the economic value attached to the TL. Such a decision influenced by the social context could be claimed as one dominant source of anxiety. This seemed to be a more specific type of anxiety among language learners.

Context of use is the major reason for the fluctuation of motivation and anxiety. When learners had a clear purpose of why they learn language and how they can make use of the language, they can visualize themselves as a language speaker/user, and try to reach the ideal self. "Learn first, apply later" could well describe the way language was learned and used in monolingual context where workplace becomes their first and most serious battlefield (S3).

According to Papi (2010), ought-to self correlated with anxiety while students with ideal self tended to experience less anxiety. This study found that when ideal self was formulated by future career plan—to improve oneself to meet competency level required by the future job, learners seemed to suffer a great deal from FLA. As using FL at work would be more demanding than using language in class or outside classroom context, even low anxiety students might suffer from career-related FLA.

“I’m more concerned about speaking Korean at work. In real life, I feel more pressure than speaking in class. If I make mistakes in class, the teachers will correct me. I can repair my mistakes. But to be an interpreter, no one will correct my mistakes. I couldn’t risk making any mistakes. I need to be close to perfection.” (S2)

There was a transition period during the last year of their study that students felt insecure about their language knowledge, having concerns about the applicability of their new linguistic knowledge in real-life situation. This type of anxiety did not emerge in the quantitative data—FLA level was at its lowest in the fourth year. But based on the students’ interviews, students in the fourth year voiced such concerns.

“I thought to myself I was going to graduate soon. How could it be that I’m not good enough? I’m not ready yet. I’m afraid. I feel lost. I will face real Japanese speakers but I’m afraid because my performance is poor. I try to encourage myself that I can do it. But now I still fear. (S4)

As experience grew and students become more familiar with the FL, it was expected that FLA would diminish. However, Toth (2010) argued that “long years of commitment to learning a FL and relatively high level of L2 proficiency do not necessarily confer a sense of confidence in using the target language to every learner” (p. 189). Toth’s observation was confirmed by the excerpt above. It suggested that regardless of proficiency or years of experience, the final year cohort was found to be riddled with uncertainty about whether their linguistic abilities would serve them in their career. The approach “learn first, apply later” might be the cause of this type of nervousness.

While Larsen-Freeman’s (2003) calls this symptom as the “inert knowledge problem”, it was found that there was another factor influencing learners’ career-related

anxiety. Learners' career choice was found to predict anxiety. Certain job descriptions caused students more anxiety than the others as they learned more information from their predecessors who now had first-hand experience working in that particular job positions. It was claimed by the students that they would not feel anxious to have normal office work using standard FL, but for particular positions like secretary to speakers of the TL or language interpreter, they felt unprepared and the stress was really high.

“Generally, I would be OK to work and perform daily tasks using Japanese. But for some specific area like being an interpreter in the factory or hospital, I would be extremely nervous. I need to learn everything from the beginning. All Japanese major graduates who work as interpreter complained of the problems they faced. They said it was like they learned nothing from university, like they learned nothing in the past four years. The previous knowledge didn't help” (S3)

Despite all these challenges, some students still aspired to become language interpreters due to its financial rewards and the fact that not many choices are available for the L3 graduates. They would not want mundane jobs that paid much less than jobs that required advanced L3 skills. As a result, the co-existence of high ideal self and high anxiety was observed in this study, especially in the case of Japanese learners. For some careers, the visualized self-image might result in students' high ideal self, which instead of reducing anxiety, the challenge of working under pressure stimulated more FLA among fourth year students.

Concrete evidence was found in Japanese learners as the majority of students aimed to work in Japanese companies. The shift from grade focus to future employment was most obviously seen for jobs which demanded high proficiency from learners who

wanted to use Japanese for specific purpose, for example, as Japanese interpreter in factories or companies. Therefore, Japanese learners' high anxiety is the issue that needs attention, as learners did not only express high anticipation in class, they also seemed to have great concern for their future career. The students, despite high motivation to learn the TL for economic value of the language, found it difficult to face the reality of working requirements. Feedback from current students suggests that working environment is stressful as they found the jobs demanding on their language skills.

“It’s really stressful. Everyone cries in the first six months.” (S12)

“As I told you, Japanese in class is totally different from what has been used at work. Vocabularies we know aren’t useful in factories. How could I know the words for ‘screw’ or ‘steel’ in Japanese? We have a fresh start there. The boss also talked very fast. We couldn’t even catch the words, let alone interpret them.” (S4)

Students felt that a huge burden would be put on their shoulders as they stepped outside the university gate. At work they needed to assume responsibility for mistakes leading to miscommunication. To further investigate this issue, a couple of interpreters who have worked in the industries with about 10-year experience were contacted and interviewed to see whether students’ perception was correct according to the professional accounts.

The interviews with language people in the business world¹ provided very insightful information about working environments and problems arising from working as language interpreters for Thai and Japanese colleagues. The interviewees spontaneously mentioned the anxiety experienced in the working environment, which

¹ Two female professional Japanese interpreters who the researcher knows were contacted and interviewed on telephone.

confirmed the students' high anxiety about their future. To give a clearer picture of the context, the brief accounts are as follows:

“Every time you changed your job, you have to learn new vocabularies in the new workplace because in different companies they used different words to refer to the same things, for example, electronic parts or equipment. [...] Japanese people also talked with different variety of accents. Some accents are difficult to understand. Typically, the boss is quite demanding. Sometimes they never worked with Thai interpreter before, they don't understand our issues. It is necessary to have some time to tune in. [...] Very often, we got blamed for other people mistakes. The Thai engineers couldn't give satisfactory answer to the boss, but the boss blamed the interpreter thinking we couldn't translate it right. [...] They pay you well, but you also have to prove yourself worth of the money. Japanese people are 100% into their work. They totally dedicate themselves to work and expected us to do the same which is different from Thai people.” (S12)

The time estimated by the interviewee for most new interpreters to be able to adapt themselves to work under high-pressure environment was six months. After such period, as experience grows, newly graduate students shift their status from language learners to become more proficient language users.

There seemed to be a transition period of anxiety between classroom and work. The career-related FLA also becomes visible in this period, which is more than normal classroom anxiety and communicative anxiety. More grounded evidence is needed to conclude on this matter. Learners felt that proficiency was not the only problem. Experience was also crucial. There seemed to be an urgent need for training or

preparation courses that would facilitate students in the process of becoming a language professional.

6.3.7 The Transition from Language Learner to Language User: a Comparison between Humanities and NUIC Students

The comparison between the two faculties also revealed interesting patterns. Although both groups of students were studying in language-related programs, NUIC students seemed to better cope with anxiety as shown by their lower FLA scores across languages. In tune with career-related anxiety, the comparison between two groups of learners helps portraying how context is important in increasing or reducing learners' FLA.

Although the statistical evidence confirmed previous studies that students in English-medium education showed significantly lower FLA than students in mother tongue education (Yashima et al., 2004; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008), the retrospective interviews suggested that NUIC students did experience FLA when they first joined the program. Their FLA dissipated because they acquired English through a wide range of subject matters that they were studying as their major. But at the same time, it was a big challenge for some of them who studied in the mother tongue education before in high school.

“In the first year, I was really anxious. I couldn't help comparing myself with other classmates. They could communicate with teachers very fluently but I couldn't. When the teacher asked me, I was stunned. I was thinking about how to answer.” (S6)

“I was overwhelmed when I found that I had to use English all day long. It's much more difficult than I had imagined it to be. In high school, I learned only

grammars. Here I studied business management, but everything was taught in English.”
(S8)

These students experienced little FLA during high school—some even reported high confidence in their language proficiency, which was similar to most Humanities students who were language-oriented as well. The change in environment was attributed to be the cause of FLA to both groups of students. They faced the transition period from high school to university. But NUIC students seemed to be struggling more as they had to deal with both new academic environment and the linguistic challenge from English-only education. On the other hand, Humanities students found university life was not too difficult once they could adapt themselves to new learning environment and make new friends.

To elaborate this point, NUIC students were exposed to a natural setting of a FL far earlier than Humanities students whose primary focus was to perfect the languages they had learned. NUIC students had an immediate need to improve their English and came to realize the limitation of their grammar-based knowledge when it came to real life conversations.

“When I first started at NUIC, I felt that the teachers spoke and taught very fast. I couldn’t catch up with the lesson. I had to tell them to slow down or explain to me what they meant. [...] I had to adapt myself a lot. I had to pay full attention. I couldn’t be distracted at any time or else I got lost. I practiced listening from CDs until I got familiar with the accent. I might not know some words and expressions at first, but as I study longer, the teachers use the same words and expressions over and over until I got them.” (S8)

This was the opportunity Humanities students lacked—to realize their own limitations and seek the right solution or method to improve. They might rely on grade as the sole evaluation of their language ability due to limited contact with foreigners. The following excerpt belongs to an English major student (S5) whose first encounter with foreigners made her doubt her language ability and realize she need to do something about it.

“There was an event that changed my perception about my language learning. Some foreigners asked me for direction but I was so scared. I didn’t say anything and ran away from them. After that, I felt regret that I understood everything in class but I couldn’t make use of my knowledge. So far what I’ve learned was for exam only. After that, I changed a lot. I tried to speak English even with strangers. I used to be shy among foreigners, which is not my normal self. I’m a talkative person but I was quiet at the presence of foreigners. Now, I tried to engage in a conversation even with strangers so that I have more opportunities to practice” (S5)

The opportunities to use language in a more natural setting appeared to be one of the reasons NUIC students became more at ease with the language, although they had fewer language classes. Despite the fact that Humanities students received intensive language instruction and most of the time was taught in the TL, all of their classmates were Thai. They rarely had the opportunity to use the TL except to memorize the linguistic content and participate in classroom activities. This point was highlighted by Todeva (2009) who maintained that the unnatural setting of language learning deprived learners of the opportunities to use and test tentative hypotheses, which is an important part of the process of language learning.

Moreover, NUIC students had the advantages over Humanities students in terms of intercultural friendship. They could engage in a more meaningful relationship with teachers and international friends who they spent four years of their life with. Relationship with native speaking teachers and international students stimulated the learning process as students had immediate needs to interact and form a rapport with these people. They somehow acculturated to the TL culture. The process of acquiring the TL, although harder, was more natural than for Humanities students. This confirms Aubrey and Nowlan's (2013) study about the effect of a multicultural and bilingual environment on Japanese students in international college. Making friends and acquaintances with international students can help increase intercultural contact and IP.

Humanities students with limited international contact, on the other hand, appeared to interact differently with their language teachers. They tended to show more respect towards authority. NUIC students indicated a more international stance when talking about teachers and international friends. Teachers were not perceived as authoritative figures but as equals with whom they could talk about any subject matter. One of NUIC students (S6) seemed to develop a close friendship with teachers and international students.

"If I studied in Thai program, I might not have been confident to speak with foreigners. But by studying with foreign teachers and spending time with them a lot, it helped me understand the conversation cues. [...] I'm not afraid to talk to foreigners. I like to talk to them. I'm close to Teacher A. She was the one who taught me how to use reflection to improve my English. [...] I also talk to Teacher D very often. Sometimes I hang out with a group of international students. I also take part in extra curricular activities like helping to arrange the welcome party for new international students." (S6)

While Humanities students might evaluate their language performance on grade, NUIC students appeared to be more realistic about their language ability. NUIC students were not afraid to speak English although they were fully aware that their English was not perfect. Lee (2001) suggested that familiarity decreases uncertainty and anxiety, so NUIC students became less anxious as they study longer and had the chance to practice more.

“I know that I speak broken English sometimes but I don’t care much. I just want to get my message across when I talk to my foreign friends. If I couldn’t find the word, I just look it up in my smartphone. I’m not anxious.” (S6)

“Compared to other students, my English is not good but I have to be bold. If I don’t speak, I won’t learn anything. [...] Studying at international college helps improve my English, but that’s not all. It also depends on myself. I have to learn as much as I could to get enough for what I have paid [higher tuition fee].” (S8)

Such a nonchalant view towards speaking English was rarely seen among Humanities students. This is the result of the confidence gained from more repeated practices. Although they admitted that their English was still far from perfect, NUIC students proudly talked about their sense of achievement—what they had learned from the international college.

“I would say I’m pretty keen on the varieties of accents. I had experienced many different accents from the teachers here [NUIC], British, American, Filipino. I’m not stick to one accent, I understands people’s accents from different countries. I feel proud of myself I come this far.” (S6)

“I’ve never been abroad, but my accent improves. If I put more effort, I get better result. Even it is a slight progress, I’m really pleased with myself. I feel that I get better and better. I have some improvement. [...] In the first year, I suffered a great deal from anxiety. But now I’m in my third year, I don’t feel anxious anymore.” (S8)

Moreover, a preliminary interview with L3 native speaker teachers revealed that the classes at NUIC were more communicative. Students were encouraged to speak up in class and the environment was more relaxing. One teacher said “students told me they really enjoy Japanese class because it was really hard for them to study the subjects of their major all day long in English, which was not their mother tongue. But in Japanese class, it was the place where they can relax and have fun.”

The same teacher also had experience of teaching at the Faculties of Humanities for 4 years before she transferred to NUIC, so interestingly she described Humanities students as “more serious and quiet. The Humanities students have to use this language to work in the future. They have to put a lot of effort to master the language. It was their major and they were pressured with expectations when they graduate”.

To some degree, NUIC students could pass themselves as FL users. However, most Humanities students still could not find the opportunities to speak in natural occurring situations. NUIC students thus had a clear advantage over Humanities students in terms of context and frequency of use. While Humanities students explicitly and intensively learned the languages mostly in the TL, those skills were passive. They rarely had chance to use language in meaningful communicative interactions.

6.3.8 Motivation, Anxiety and International Posture

As international posture (IP) was found to closely relate to motivation in many previous studies (e.g., Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), the quantitative data suggested that students had uneven level of motivation and FLA across languages and that English was not the only language influencing IP. While ideal self and ought-to self were found to be linked to IP in some languages, FLA was not found to relate to IP at all in any language. The interview aimed to seek the answer why simultaneous learners' IP was influenced by the particular language they learned. Feedback will only reflect the perspective of the individual interviewee. While individual experience cannot be generalized, it might provide some insights in the question.

It is surprising that FLA did not correlate with IP in this study. Previous studies showed FLA related to Willingness to Communicate (WTC) (Liu & Jackson, 2008) which directly links IP (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al. 2004; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). A possible explanation for the lack of a significant relationship between FLA and IP might be linked to the programs students were studying in. As students of language-related programs, they might expect interaction and contact with foreigners on a normal basis either during or after their university education. To some degree, students' future career plan would inevitably relate to FL communication. Although some interviewees reported to be anxious, they still had the desire to use FL for communication with the outside world. When asked about their attitude towards the upcoming ASEAN community, all interviewees said they would be happy to work in a multilingual and multicultural environment.

In order to find the relationship between motivation and IP, students were asked what language they thought was the most important and whether they thought the L3

they learned would be helpful to communicate with foreigners either in general or at work. Also, they were asked whether they had or would like to have international friends and in what language they would like to communicate. The answers were diverse as each student had different impression and experience with the FLs they learned.

Most students agreed that English was the language associated with international communication, which is consistent with their English motivation scores and interview accounts. Some indicated the desire to have more exchange students at the university so that they could have more international friends to practice English with. Regardless of what language they were studying, most students had an inclination towards intercultural friendship and the desire to gain intercultural communicative competence through using English.

The role of Chinese motivation scores on IP seemed to rely heavily on ought-to self, which indicated how the students perceived Chinese as a practical language. Chinese students felt that Chinese expanding economic influence in Asia would make the language become one of the major languages in the region as well. But they also thought that English is equally important. This might explain why Chinese ought-to self scores along with English ideal self and ought-to self scores correlated with international posture.

Korean students named English as the most important language but appeared very determined to use Korean in their future career. Korean students addressed the importance of English in general but underscored the importance of South Korea as a technologically developed country and one of the world's leading economics. A student (S2) thought that this factor attracted people all around the world to become interested

in Korean language, along with youths all around Asia who admired its cultural products.

“I took a short course in South Korea last summer. There were so many international students, Chinese, Japanese, Indian, Spain and American. We rarely used English to communicate. We spoke Korean. South Korea is a fast growing country. In Thailand, Korean is such a big hit. Its marketing is amazing. South Korea is a small country with various capacities. Even Western countries are interested in Korean language.” (S2)

The knowledge of Korean language and culture might somehow encourage them to learn more about the wider world outside their country, which resulted in Korean motivation score correlated with international posture. Also students of Korean might be stimulated by the strong sense of shared experience when talking about Korean pop culture and feel enthusiastic to meet people from different cultures to discuss the topic of their interest. As mentioned earlier, students appeared to be very eager to meet Korean speakers to discuss about Korean pop culture.

In the case of Japanese, Japanese motivation scores did not correlate with IP at all despite the fact that students had relatively high ideal self and ought-to self scores. This was different from previous research that reported the correlation between motivation and international posture. Based on the interview, Japanese students talked about their motivation to learn Japanese for economic reasons. The future goal was to use Japanese in their profession. When asked about their intention to use Japanese outside working context, students reasoned that the opportunities would be rare because Japanese was spoken in a limited circle. Therefore, they did not think Japanese was associated with something international. On the other hand, most Japanese learners

indicated their pro-English view as most of them thought English was more prevalent and versatile.

“If we don’t work as a Japanese interpreter, it might be difficult for us. To be a teacher, to work in the hotel, English would be more advantageous. The job market for Japanese students is quite narrow. English is much more needed because English is required in every field of work.” (S3)

The results showed that the relationships between motivations, FLA and IP among multiple language learners were not straightforward as found in previous research using linear models to measure the relationships of these variables in EFL context. In the current study, there might have been some latent variables that affected the results. This emphasized the complexity of the systems in which learners’ motivations develop and the need to tackle this issue carefully probably with Dynamic System Theory (DST) research design.

6.4 Summary

In conclusion, it is quite obvious that while English still maintains its role as a global lingua franca, IP was also related to motivation to learn other FLs, particularly those with increasing importance in terms of economic and cultural power. Although the findings from interviews clearly suggested that students’ primary objective of learning FLs is pragmatic one, it is difficult to delineate between students’ ideal self and ought-to self because sometimes the students’ ideal self is set by expectation of significant others like family. According to Munezane (2013), influence from significant others can lead to general positive feeling towards English-speaking

countries, which “predict higher interest in international knowledge, affairs, people and career” (p. 164).

Chapter 7: Longitudinal Study of Five Students

7.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to investigate changes over the period of 3 years (January 2012 – April 2014) among five students (1 male, 4 female). Three of them were from the Faculty of Humanities, Naresuan University and the other two were from NUIC. From the test scores and the interview, motivational trajectories over time were presented in relation to FLA and IP. Students' English and the third language scores were also plotted into graphs so as to provide visual images of the changes. Interviews were read and reread to find evidence that might explain the change during each period of data collection. Graphs of each individual student and analysis of their interview will be presented.

The individual scores were projected to map changes during the course of three academic semesters. Interview data were also used in order to investigate how motivation, FLA and international posture might change and interact. Piniel & Csizer (2015) maintained that retrospective data can better account for change overtime “when students have the chance to reflect on their experience” (p. 219). Thus, student retrospective interview provided chance to understand factors behind the changes and see whether their opinion really reflected the scores. Table 7.1 below showed time frame as students progressed in each academic year.

Table 7.1 Students' year at each time point of data collection

Student /major/gender	Jan-Mar 2012 Time 1	Aug-Nov 2013 Time 2	Mar-April 2014 Time 3
S3 Japanese/male	3 rd year 2/2	4 th year 1/2	4 th year 2/2
S4 Chinese/female	1 st year 2/2	2 nd year 1/2	2 nd year 2/2
S5 English/female	2 nd year 2/2	3 rd year 1/2	3 rd year 2/2
S6 NUIC/female	2 nd year 2/2	3 rd year 1/2	3 rd year 2/2
S9 English/female	2 nd year 2/2	3 rd year 1/2	3 rd year 2/2

7.2 Longitudinal Results and Discussions

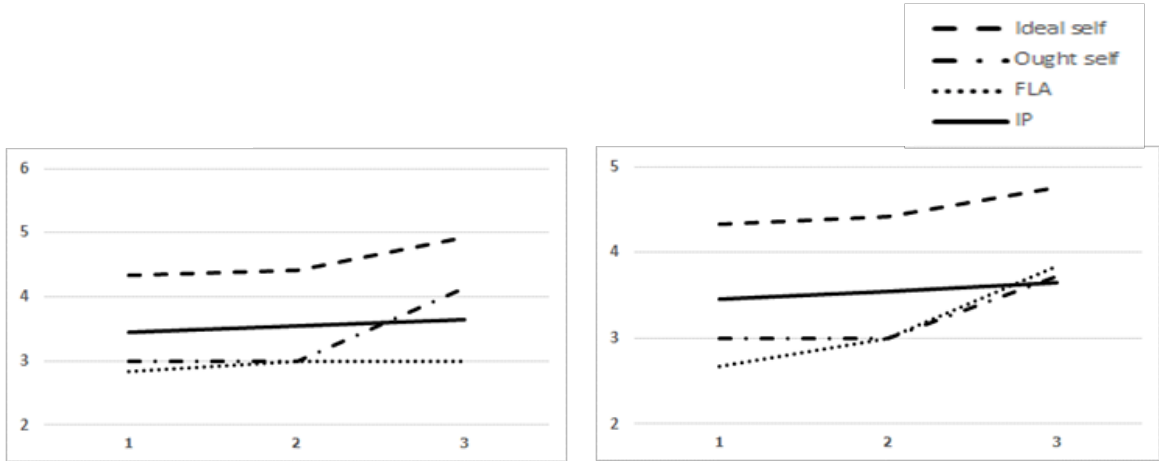
Larsen-Freeman (2015) stated that “If we really want to understand motivation,...we must conceive of them more as processes than states” (2015, p.12). In order to avoid capturing only the snapshot of students’ motivation, scores were collected over the period of three years to observe changes. Not only changes were observed, students’ interview accounts were also considered. There were times of conflicts between interview and scores, suggesting the gap between what students thought they should have done and what they actually did. All five students provided interesting results.

Figure 7.1 Comparison between English and Japanese scores of student S3

7.2.1 Student S3

English scores

Japanese scores



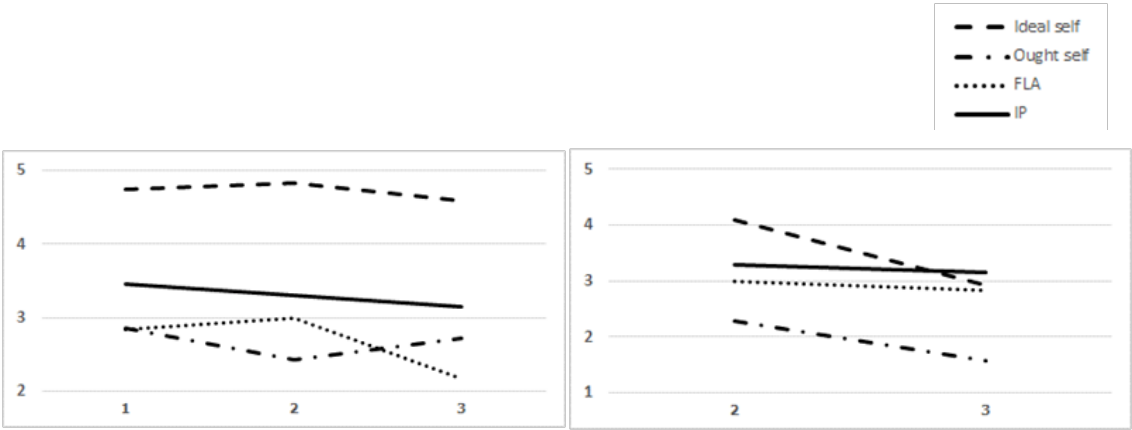
Student (S3) was a Japanese major student. He was in his third year when he first responded to this questionnaire, in fourth year at time 2 and a teacher trainee at time 3. Figure 7.1 showed that he was generally motivated to learn both English and Japanese as seen in the increase of ideal self and ought-to self scores throughout time 1 to 3. His obvious shift of ideal self and ought-to self in time 3 suggested the influence of future career consideration. From the interview, S3 indicated the desire to work as a Japanese language interpreter but voiced considerable concern about his Japanese proficiency. This also reflect in the shift of the score in figure 7.1 above. English and Japanese score appeared almost identical except Japanese FLA score that was higher during time 3, which was consistent with the interview. The student reported his high anxiety towards using Japanese in his dream career as had discussed in the previous chapter about career related anxiety.

Figure 7.2 Comparison between English and Chinese scores of students S4

English scores

Chinese scores

7.2.2 Student S4



The students (S4) was in her second year during the time of interview. S4 was currently studying in Chinese major. However, during time 1 she had not yet studied Chinese, so there was only time 2 and time 3 for Chinese scores. Her English scores, however, showed small fluctuation over the period of time. Her English ideal self and ought-to self score seemed to shift in opposite directions. While her English ideal self slightly increased during time 2, her English ought-to self score moved downward. According to her interview, S4 reported that she felt studying English at university was much more easy than in high school, but the exam was much more difficult. Her English anxiety score slightly increase during time 2 before dropping again in time 3. This might be due to the terrible second semester phenomenon (VanPatten & Glass, 1999) when students found considerable increase in difficulty in learning content.

Her English ideal self score was very high compared to Chinese ideal self score. Her interview account did not appear consistent with the scores. S4 said that she wanted

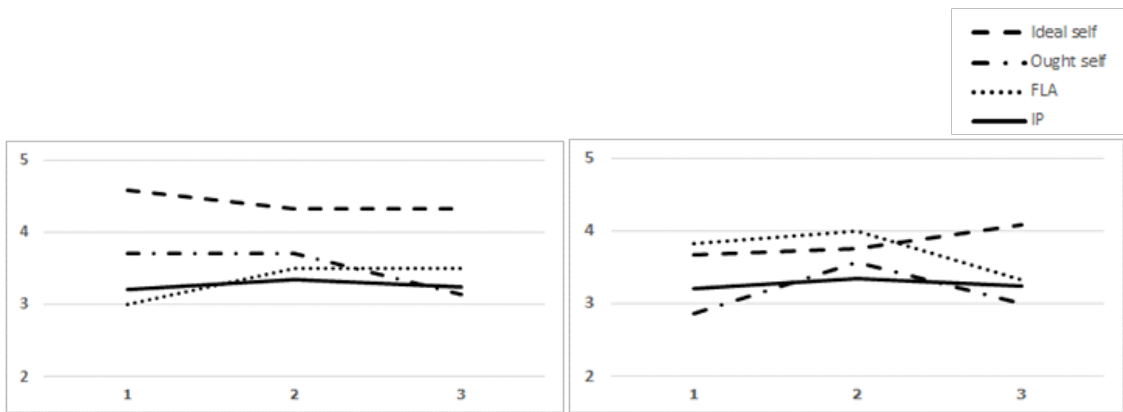
to study in English major but chose Chinese major instead because her admission scores was not high enough for English major. She, however, said that after studying in Chinese major, she never felt regret for not majoring in English and even thought that Chinese was more important than English. From the time she had been studying Chinese, both Chinese ideal self and ought-to self score dropped while she still maintained high level of English ideal self score throughout the years. The fact that interview did not support the scores might be due to her defense mechanism—to reach compromised solution for her disappointment for not studying in English major or she might be in the state of denial to avoid hurting her self-esteem.

She expressed her view on English as less important than Chinese. “Since I have studied Chinese, I have no regret for not studying English [...] Chinese was the most important language.” But the Chinese scores suggested otherwise. Since the time she started learning Chinese, her Chinese ideal self and ought-to self scores decreased, which was contrast to what she said. However, she appeared to be very proud of her success in studying Chinese. She claimed to have the highest mark in her year. The success from learning Chinese might be the reason she thought she preferred Chinese to English.

Curiously enough, S4 had lower English anxiety score than Chinese’s. Her level of Chinese anxiety score, however, seemed stable between time 2 and time 3 while her English anxiety dropped in time 3. According to her words, she said she would feel anxious when communicating in English with Western people, but would feel less anxiety when communicating with Asian looking people. She attributed her anxiety to appearance of the interlocutors, who looked different. S4 gave an example of how she initiated conversation with Chinese international students on the bus when she overheard their conversation and recognized that they were speaking Chinese. They

exchanged contact and had online chat from time to time. This, she said, would never happen with English speakers who she thought their appearance frightened her.

7.2.3 Student S5



S5 was an English major student who studied Chinese as a minor subject. Her English ideal self score was high and relatively stable throughout the time while English ought-to self score dropped in time 3. English anxiety score also increased in time 2 and 3. According to her interview, the student reported family's expectation affected her motivation and anxiety. Although she appeared to be highly motivated learner on her own, family's interference seemed to hinder her enthusiasm to invest in classroom learning. As the student was in her third year during time 2 and time 3 of data collection, her English ought-to self score decreased and English anxiety score increased. She reported facing a dilemma in choosing her preferred subjects which did not overlap with her family's. The drop in English ought-to self score might be due to her feeling of resistance towards her family's expectation while the rise in English anxiety might be the result of her perceived lack of English communicative competence as in the third year students need to involve more in oral activities.

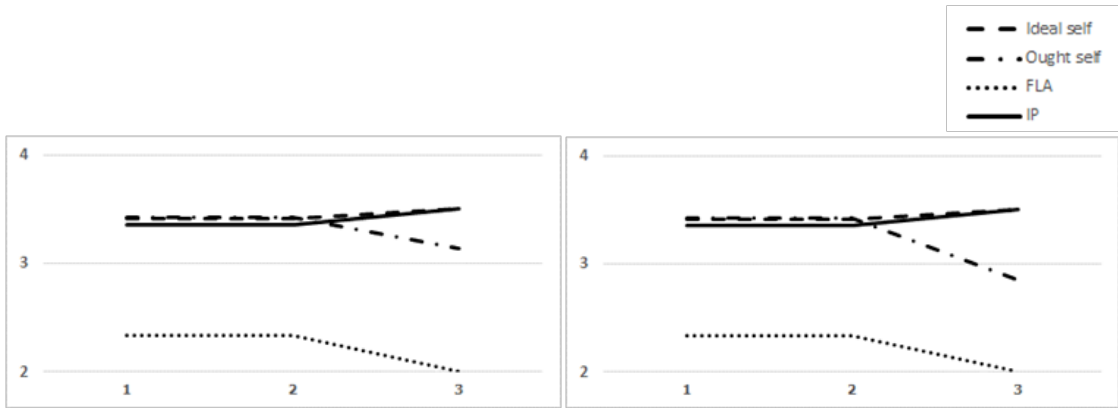
Figure 7.4 Comparison between English and Japanese scores of student S6

English scores

Japanese scores

Her Chinese scores showed interesting result as it suggested the dynamic nature of language study that might be triggered by one event that changes the whole course of motivation. The student’s positive attitude towards Chinese was observed after she took a short course in China during summer vacation in 2012. Her Chinese ideal self increased while Chinese ought-to self score decreased. Chinese anxiety score also dropped. S5 said that the experience completely changed her attitude towards Chinese. She reported more confidence and automaticity to communicate in Chinese.

7.2.4 Student S6



S6 was studying at the international college (NUIC). It was the end of her second year when she first responded to the questionnaire. Throughout the period of data collection, her scores were more stable compared to other respondents and also appeared almost identical between the two languages she was studying. However, her interview account showed that during the first year (prior to data collection), she did suffer from English anxiety because of the abrupt change from normal Thai speaking classroom to an English-dominant environment. As the scores were collected in the second and the third year, after the period of transition and struggle, S6’s scores

Figure 7.5 Comparison between English and Chinese score of student S9

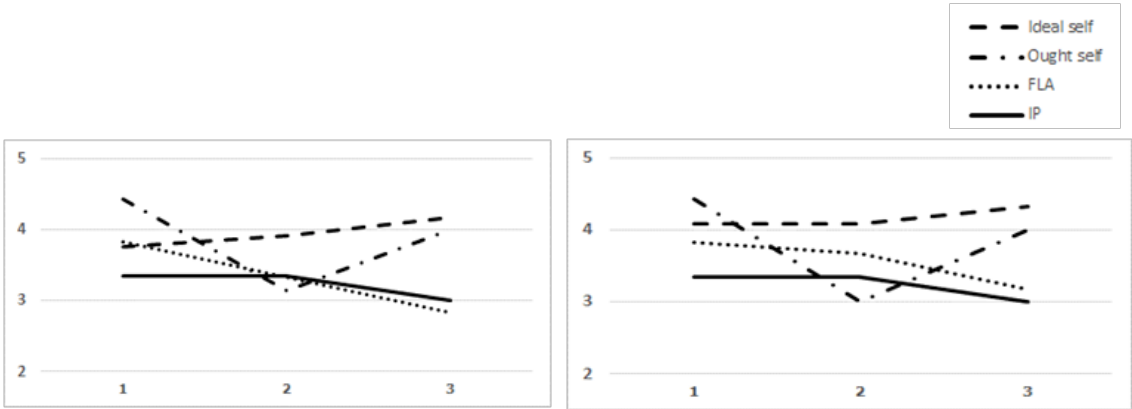
English scores

Chinese scores

appeared very steady. S6 said the first year was the hardest. Her narrative focused on how she struggled in the first year to overcome language barriers when studying in class and how she improved her English skills. By the time the data were collected, it could be said that she had already reached a plateau and was able to settle within an environment similar to an international community (NUIC). She was anxiety-free when communicating with foreign teachers or friends. She was proud of her achievement to survive in English-speaking environment. That might be the reason why the score remained quite similar throughout the period.

She could overcome FLA not only in English but also in Japanese. S6 did not feel anxious speaking Japanese although she admitted that her Japanese proficiency was lower intermediate. She said that in the back of her head, she always knew she had English as a substitute language if she had problem communicating in Japanese. Code-switching was normal. She also attributed her low anxiety to her Japanese teacher who was kind and understanding. During time 3, anxiety score slightly declined in both languages, reflecting S6's more confidence to use both languages.

7.2.5 Student S9



S9 was an English major student. She made her own choice to study Chinese as her minor subject. According to S9, most of her friends in English major chose to study Chinese due to pragmatic reasons although they did not like it. S9 was forced to study Chinese as extra curricular subject since she was in grade 8 by her mother. But later on, she was fascinated by the Chinese lessons and inspired to continue studying for a Chinese major at university. But again she gave up her own wish to comply with her mother's who wanted her to do an English major. While English ideal self scores of most students appeared higher than the third language scores, S9's Chinese ideal self scored was higher than English's. This might be due to the fact that Chinese was the student's own language choice.

Her ideal self scores of both languages steadily rise. S9 reported regular practice in both English and Chinese. While there were steady rise in ideal self scores in both English and Chinese, the ought-to self scores fluctuated in both languages. According to the interview, S9 said that she did not consider herself a hard working student. If she got low grade, she would put more effort in the following term. If she received satisfactory grade, she tend to be less persevering. Throughout the years, S9's continuous practice seemed to result in her gradual decline in anxiety scores in both English and Chinese. She said, "I feel less anxious now because I always practice. If I don't practice, I won't get better."

7.3 Conclusion

There was no clear pattern in the scores over time of these individuals. Each student's scores fluctuated over time for various reasons. It is thus impossible to single out any specific factor behind these changes as regularly practiced in the linear model as

noted by Piniel & Csizer (2015): “Change is related to the level of internationalization of the various dispositions and selves, that is, more internalized notions tend to withstand change, while issues that are less internalized might fluctuate more easily” (p. 220). We should view the shifts as emerging through a number of routes. As Ushioda (2009) emphasized the importance of context as closely related how the person changed, the importance of dynamic perspective gives more insightful about the nature of motivation and anxiety that depend on the context. International posture remained relatively high and stable possibly due to the fact that these students studied in language-related program. They seemed to have strong internalized vision of themselves as the users of TL either at the moment or in the future.

Chapter 8: Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

In this final chapter, the major findings from both quantitative and qualitative studies will be presented, complemented by close-up analyses of five students, inspired by Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self System and Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view. The research provided a rich picture of how students acquired multiple languages simultaneously. The quantitative parts confirmed the differences across languages and showed how variables interacted with one another, while the qualitative approach helps explain patterns observed in the quantitative data. The longitudinal study shed light on the reasons behind variation in students' motivation in each language at some points in time. In the first section of this chapter, the main findings from quantitative study will be presented. In the second section, the results from interviews will be discussed, followed by a summary of the longitudinal studies. This chapter will end with the limitations of the research design and recommendations for future research.

8.2 Quantitative findings

8.2.1 Variables across Languages

The result confirmed previous research that English had the highest scores in both ideal self and ought-to self, and that students felt less anxious using English compared to other FLs. Surprisingly, while Chinese was the learners' top choice for the L3, learners seemed to have very low ideal self in Chinese. Korean was the language that learners had the lowest ought-to self scores indicating their intrinsic motivation to

pursue this language without pressure from family or fear of negative outcomes.

Japanese gained the second highest ideal self scores, but despite high ideal self score, students also felt highly anxious in Japanese. Chinese and Japanese were the top two languages that students felt most anxious about, while learners of English and Korean had lower level of anxiety.

8.2.2 Language Specialist and English-medium Business Students

In the comparison between NUIC and Humanities students, English was the only language for which significant differences were found between these two groups. NUIC students seemed to benefit more from their English-only policy within the college. With English as a medium of instruction, NUIC students had higher ideal self, ought-to self and IP score and also felt less anxious using English. While a lot of Humanities students were studying in language specialist program like Chinese, Japanese and Korean, their motivation scores in L3s did not differ from NUIC students. This might suggest that positive attitudes towards learning English also contribute to positive attitudes in learning other languages and help NUIC students in acquiring an L3 with less difficulty. This might highlight the important role of English-medium college in increasing learners' exposure to intercultural environment.

8.2.3 International Posture and Motivation across Languages

IP scores were found to relate to motivation scores (ideal self and ought-to self). However, in this study it was found that IP correlated not only with motivation to learn English but also with other languages learned by simultaneous FL learners. Firstly, for Chinese learners, their English ideal and ought-to self scores showed stronger

correlation with IP than Chinese motivation scores. Unlike learners of Chinese, Korean students showed positive correlations in both Korean ideal self and ought-to self scores with IP, while English ideal and ought-to self scores did not correlate with IP at all. Japanese learners had strong positive correlations between English ideal self score and IP. This finding suggests that the relationship between IP and motivation is not limited to English only. Learners who know other FLs might be able to obtain intercultural orientation and have future self-image in imagined international community through learning L3 other than English.

8.3 Qualitative Findings

8.3.1 Ideal Self

Although students reported high ideal self on English, it is surprising that not much motivated learning behaviour was observed among L3 major students. These language specialist students emphasised the importance of English for their future career and expressed the desire to be proficient in English, but their goal seemed rather vague. In contrast, those who had immediate need of English in their learning environment like English major students and NUIC students had concrete plans and actions to improve their English. Therefore, for those in English-related courses, students seemed to have more realistic goal for their English learning, which resulted in motivated behaviours. Most L3 specialist students fell into the category of someone who wanted to participate in imagined international community (Yashima, 2002, 2009).

The L3 major students' attitudes towards English was also interesting. Some of these learners had high English ideal self as could be seen from their past learning experiences and performances. However, their English ideal self did not lead to

motivated learning behaviour. The participants claimed that English globalization made the language more accessible to them and easy to reactivate, so they decided to focus on other L3s instead.

The unequal distribution of learning resources was found in these simultaneous language learners. Some of students in Eastern language majors chose to direct their motivation towards learning the L3, and to put English on hold. In contrast, while English major students and NUIC students had high English ideal self, their goal towards learning another L3 was very instrumental. For most of them, English was going to be the major language of communication in the modern world while an L3 would provide them with a competitive edge in job market. However, for many learners, studying Korean was exceptional as they perceived learning Korean as a pleasurable activity even though they already know two or more FLs. Some students studied Korean by themselves and constantly consumed Korean cultural products.

Both L3 specialist students and students in English-related courses had clear Ideal self for the language of their immediate needs. English major and NUIC students could see themselves as proficient users of English in their future careers while L3 major students had the same vision for their future L3 ideal self.

8.3.2 Ought-to Self

As graduates from language related majors or an international college, the participants in this study were well aware of social expectation on their language abilities. Students' ought-to self was relatively high for the language which was the subject of their study, except English which every student indicated as very important to learn due to its global status. Although L3 major students considered both languages they knew as equally important, it is noticeable that their primary concern for studying

L3 was to avoid possible negative outcomes like failing the exam, while their ought-to self to study English was to fulfill social expectations.

However, for English major and NUIC students, the L3s were perceived differently. Both of them choose the L3 as elective core courses. There was no sense of obligation to study L3s to meet anybody's expectation. And due to the nature of elective courses, they were studying in beginner-intermediate level. L3 classroom, thus, was not demanding. Students did not have the sense of feared outcome to worry about. Some NUIC students even felt that Eastern language course was quite relaxing after a long day of English only instruction.

However, comparing English ought-to self with L3 ought-to self, they were slightly different. Students had studied English longer and knew what to expect in English, but L3 was like a new territory for many students especially, those without enough prior information before they decide to study an L3. As L3 motivation is prone to greater fluctuation (Mercer, 2011), students' shifts of L3 self were observed more. This study confirms prior studies that ought-to self when influenced by significant others can integrate into ideal self (e.g., Chen, 2010; Kim, 2009). In this case, a lot of L3 major students who were unhappy to learn the new L3 at the beginning of the course could shift their ought-to self and eventually achieved creating a future L3 ideal self and continued studying in the same major.

8.3.3 FLA

English was found to be the least anxiety-provoking of all TLs. However, some L3 major students reported higher FLA in English due to language attrition and the lack of automaticity. Speaking in class appeared to be more anxiety-provoking than speaking

with strangers due to fear of negative evaluation by teachers and classmates. Teacher seemed to be one of the most important factors in FLA, especially native speakers who brought with them cultural differences. Students felt more anxious in Japanese class than in English class where the atmosphere is less formal. Language of instruction was also a cause of anxiety. Students reported feeling more anxious if the lesson was explained in the TL because they were not sure whether they got it right. Frequent testing is another source of students' anxiety.

The causes of anxiety were different for each FL. Surprisingly, despite the fact that some students felt intimidated in English class by their peers, some of them felt that English class was more relaxing than L3 class. Japanese was the language students felt most anxious about among the three Asian languages due to, as some reported, cultural differences, teachers and linguistic difficulties. Learners of Chinese and Korean seemed to experience low level of anxiety compared to learners of Japanese. A number of students attributed their less anxiety level in Chinese as it being a heritage language. For Korean, the obvious evidence for the lack of anxiety among learners was largely due to their love for Korean popular culture. Most students had a strong exposure to Korean media regardless of what FLs they were studying.

Although previous research found relationships between FLA and IP (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), the current study did not find any link between the two variables. This might be due to the fact that all participants were language-related students who made active choice to study in the faculties and knew that the use of FLs is unavoidable. Although they might feel anxious in class or while using FLs, this anxiety does not affect their will to communicate with foreigners or engage in intercultural activities.

Career-related anxiety was found to be the latent variable in this study. It could explain the conflicting result why the fourth year students had high FLA despite a high ideal self. When these final year students fully developed their ideal self—to perfect their language as best as possible to be ready for their dream career, they still feel apprehension about how they should approach their jobs, particularly, Japanese students whose choices were relatively limited to a small circle of highly demanding Japanese companies and organizations.

8.3.4 International Posture

Most interviewees associated English with IP, but IP does not relate to motivation to learn English only. The interviews showed that students who were interested in other FLs also had high levels of IP as well. In their opinion, reaching out to people who do not speak your language does not automatically mean using English. English might be the first priority, but learners of Chinese, for example, aimed to communicate with people outside their country using Chinese as well. Korean learners also felt that Korean could help them get in touch with people all around the world who share their enthusiasm towards Korean pop culture. Only Japanese learner thought that Japanese was used in a small circle, so English would represent international posture.

8.3.5 NUIC and Humanities Students

NUIC students had advantage over Humanities students in terms of context of use. While studying TLs intensively, Humanities students did not have opportunities to practice what they learned in real life situation. In contrast, NUIC students were able to have meaningful conversations with international teachers and students everyday both inside or outside the classroom. Unsurprising, NUIC students appeared to be very

confident in communicating in English despite their imperfect English and had positive attitudes towards learning L3s.

8.4 Limitations and Implications

The research design had some limitations. First, the research was conducted with students from one university only. More and more universities in Thailand start offering more international courses for students from different disciplines. Replication of this study with students from other universities would help validate the results of this study.

Despite the attempt to include as many foreign languages as possible, English was the only Western language in the study. For statistical reasons, French which was another Western language, needed to be excluded from the study due to small number of students studying French. Future research might improve the language balance between Eastern and Western languages.

Due to time limitation, it was not possible to include follow-up interviews after the three time-point data collection. The last data collection and the interviews took place on the same day. Had the explanatory interviews been conducted later, it would have been possible to obtain an explanation for the final shift in scores of motivation, anxiety and international posture.

Although the current study utilized both Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) and Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view as well as longitudinal case study to investigate motivation and its dynamic nature, it is not enough to describe the research design as DST research. The variation in motivation across languages and individuals shows the dynamic nature and the complexity of the phenomena, without using a proper DST approach (Dörnyei et al., 2014).

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Appendices

APPENDIX A: Final Version of Questionnaire

(This questionnaire will be translated into Thai and administered to students in the Faculty of Humanities and International College, Naresuan University.)

This questionnaire has been created as a part of a research study, conducted by Miss Pitchayapa Siridetkoon, in the Department of Applied Linguistics and Communication, Birkbeck College, University of London. The purpose of this questionnaire is to explore motivation, anxiety and international posture of Thai learners who study two or more FLs at Naresuan University, Thailand. The questionnaire will be divided into six sections as shown below.

Section 1: Background Information

Section 2: Learners' language profile

Section 3: L2 Motivational self system

Section 4: FL anxiety

Section 5: International posture

Section 6: Any comments regarding this questionnaire or FL learning

By completing and returning this questionnaire I understand that I am giving consent for my responses to be used for the purposes of this research project.

Section 1: Background information

Direction: Please mark X in the box to describe yourself.

1. Gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

2. Age

☐ 17

☐ 18

☐ 19

☐ 20

☐ 21

☐ 22

☐ 23

☐ 24

3. Year of study

☐ 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

4. Major

☐ Chinese

☐ Japanese

☐ Korean

☐ French

☐ Tourism

☐ Human Resource

☐ English for Business

Section 2: Learners' Language profile

5. Number of language known

☐ 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ 5

6. Self rating language proficiency

7. I can imagine myself as someone who is able to speak FL(s).

8. Studying FL(s) can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job and/or making money.

9. Studying FL(s) is important to me because I would like to spend a longer period living abroad (e.g. studying and working)

10. Studying FL(s) can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies.

11. Studying FL(s) is important to me because it offers a new challenge in my life.

12. Studying FL(s) is important to me in order to attain a higher social respect.

13. I like learning FL(s) because I like books, music, films, fashion and TV programmes made in that country?

14. I like to travel to the country where I know the language.

15. I would like to meet people from that country.

16. I want to learn about the culture and art of that its speakers.

17. I want to become similar to people who speak that language.

18. How much do you like the language?

19. I have to study FL(s), because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.

20. Learning FL(s) is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.

21. My parents believe that I must study FL(s) to be an educated person.

22. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn FL(s).

23. I have to learn FL(s) because without passing the course I cannot graduate.

24. I have to learn FL(s) because I don't want to fail the course.

25. I have to study FL(s); otherwise, I think I cannot be successful in my future career.

Section 4: FL Anxiety

Fill in the circle according to how anxious you feel when you speak English in the following situations.

26. The teacher asks me a question in FL in class.

27. Taking part in a role-play or dialogue in front of my class.

28. Giving an oral presentation to the rest of the class.

29. Taking part in conversation out of class with native speaker

30. Start a conversation out of class with a native speaker

31. A native speaker I do not know asks me questions.

Section 5: International Posture

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

Intergroup Approach-Avoidance tendency	1	2	3	4	5
1. I want to make friends with international students studying in Thailand.					
2. I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can					
3. I would talk to an international student if there was one at school.					
4. I wouldn't mind sharing an apartment or room with an international student.					
5. I want to participate in a volunteer activity to help foreigners living in the surrounding community.					
6. I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.					

Interest in international News	1	2	3	4	5
I would rather stay in my hometown.					
I want to work in a foreign country.					
I'm interested in an international career.					
I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.					
I'd rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently.					
I want to work in an international organization such as the United Nations					

Interest in International News	1	2	3	4	5
I often read and watch news about foreign countries.					
I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and / or friends.					
I have a strong interest in international affairs.					
I'm not much interested in overseas news.					

Having things to Communicate to the World	1	2	3	4	5
I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.					
I have issues to address with people in the world.					
I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues and north-south issues.					
I have no clear opinions about international issues.					

Section 6: Any comments regarding this questionnaire or FL learning

Please write down any comments regarding or FL learning.

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire (Thai Version)

แบบสอบถามเรื่องประสบการณ์ในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ

ส่วนที่ 1: ปัจจัยในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไป

โปรดเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวท่าน

1. เพศ

☐ ชาย

☐ หญิง

2. อายุ

☐ 17

☐ 18

☐ 19

☐ 20

☐ 21

☐ 22

☐ 23

☐ 24

☐ อื่นๆ_____

3. ศึกษาอยู่ชั้นปีที่

☐ 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

4. วิชาเอก

☐ จีน

☐ ญี่ปุ่น

☐ เกาหลี

☐ ฝรั่งเศส

☐ อังกฤษ

☐ ท่องเที่ยว

☐ ทรัพยากรมนุษย์

☐ ภาษาอังกฤษธุรกิจ

ส่วนที่ 2: ความสามารถทางภาษาของท่าน

☐ น้อยมาก ☐ น้อย ☐ ปานกลาง ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก

1. ท่านเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศกี่ภาษา

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

2. โปรดระบุภาษาต่างประเทศที่ท่านรู้

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____

3. ความสามารถในการภาษาต่างประเทศแต่ละภาษาของท่านเป็นอย่างไร

(โปรดเลือกเฉพาะภาษาต่างประเทศที่ท่านรู้)

ภาษา	เล็กน้อย	พอใช้	ดี	ดีมาก
อังกฤษ				
ฝรั่งเศส				
จีน				
เกาหลี				
ญี่ปุ่น				

ส่วนที่ 3: การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศของท่าน

โปรดเลือกข้อที่ตรงกับความรู้สึกของท่านหรือสถานการณ์ที่ท่านเป็นอยู่มากที่สุด

1. ท่านจินตนาการว่าท่านสามารถพูดภาษาต่างประเทศได้

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

2. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศสำคัญสำหรับท่านมากเพราะในอนาคตจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อท่านในการหางานดีๆ และมีรายได้สูง

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
------	------------	-------------	---------------------	--------------	------------

อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

3. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศสำคัญสำหรับท่านเพราะท่านต้องการไปอยู่ต่างประเทศสักระยะหนึ่ง
(เช่น ไปศึกษาต่อ หรือ ทำงาน)

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

4. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศสำคัญต่อท่านเพราะท่านคิดว่าจำเป็นในการศึกษาต่อในระดับสูงของท่าน

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

5. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศสำคัญต่อท่านเพราะทำให้ท่านมีโอกาสเผชิญกับความท้าทายใหม่ๆในชีวิต

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

6. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศสำคัญต่อท่านเพราะทำให้ท่านได้รับการยอมรับนับหน้าถือตาจากสังคม

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

7. ท่านชอบเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศเพราะท่านชอบหนังสือ ดนตรี ภาพยนตร์ แฟชั่น
และรายการทีวีที่ผลิตในประเทศนั้นๆ

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

8. ท่านอยากไปประเทศที่ท่านรู้ภาษานั้น

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

9. ท่านอยากพบคนที่มาจากประเทศที่ท่านรู้ภาษานั้น

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด

อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

10. ท่านอยากเรียนรู้ศิลปะและวัฒนธรรมของคนี่พูดภาษาต่างประเทศนั้น

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

11. ท่านต้องการเป็นเหมือนกับคนี่พูดภาษาต่างประเทศนั้น

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

12. ท่านชอบภาษาต่างประเทศแค่ไหน

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					

จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

13. ท่านต้องเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศเพราะ หากท่านไม่เรียน พ่อและแม่จะผิดหวังในตัวท่าน

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

14. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศเป็นเรื่องจำเป็นเพราะคนรอบข้างคาดหวังให้ท่านเรียน

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

15. พ่อและแม่ของท่านเชื่อว่าการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศจะทำให้ท่านเป็นผู้มีการศึกษา

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

16. หากท่านไม่เรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ จะเป็นผลเสียต่อชีวิตของท่าน

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

17. ท่านจำเป็นต้องเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศเพราะหากท่านสอบไม่ผ่านวิชานี้ท่านจะเรียนไม่จบ

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

18. ท่านจำเป็นต้องเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศเพราะท่านไม่ต้องการสอบตกในวิชานั้น

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

19. ท่านจำเป็นต้องเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ

มีฉะนั้นท่านคิดว่าท่านไม่สามารถประสบความสำเร็จในอาชีพการงานในอนาคต

ภาษา	ไม่จริงเลย	ไม่ค่อยจริง	จริงบ้างไม่จริงบ้าง	ค่อนข้างจริง	จริงที่สุด
อังกฤษ					
ฝรั่งเศส					
จีน					
เกาหลี					
ญี่ปุ่น					

ส่วนที่ 4: ความกังวลต่อภาษาต่างประเทศ

เมื่อท่านพูดภาษาต่างประเทศในสถานการณ์ต่างๆ ท่านมีความกังวลมากเพียงใด
โปรดเลือกข้อที่ตรงกับตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
ไม่กังวลเลย	กังวลเล็กน้อย	กังวลปานกลาง	กังวลมาก	กังวลมากที่สุด

1. เมื่ออาจารย์ถามคำถามท่านเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศในห้องเรียน

ระดับความกังวล	1	2	3	4	5
อังกฤษ					
จีน					
ญี่ปุ่น					
เกาหลี					
ฝรั่งเศส					

2. เมื่อท่านแสดงบทบาทสมมติหรือพูดบทสนทนาหน้าชั้นเรียน

ระดับความกังวล	1	2	3	4	5
อังกฤษ					
จีน					
ญี่ปุ่น					
เกาหลี					
ฝรั่งเศส					

3. เมื่อท่านนำเสนอผลงานหน้าชั้นเรียน

ระดับความกังวล	1	2	3	4	5
อังกฤษ					
จีน					
ญี่ปุ่น					
เกาหลี					
ฝรั่งเศส					

4. เมื่อท่านร่วมวงสนทนากับเจ้าของภาษา

ระดับความกังวล	1	2	3	4	5
อังกฤษ					
จีน					
ญี่ปุ่น					
เกาหลี					
ฝรั่งเศส					

5. เมื่อท่านเปิดบทสนทนากับเจ้าของภาษา

ระดับความกังวล	1	2	3	4	5
อังกฤษ					
จีน					
ญี่ปุ่น					
เกาหลี					
ฝรั่งเศส					

6. เมื่อเจ้าของภาษาซึ่งเป็นคนแปลกหน้าถามคำถามกับท่าน

ระดับความกังวล	1	2	3	4	5
อังกฤษ					
จีน					
ญี่ปุ่น					
เกาหลี					
ฝรั่งเศส					

ส่วนที่ 5: มุมมองต่อโลก

กรุณาเลือกข้อที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด

1	2	3	4	5
ไม่เห็นด้วยที่สุด	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉยๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยที่สุด

	1	2	3	4	5
1. ท่านต้องการมีเพื่อนเป็นนักเรียนต่างชาติที่ศึกษาอยู่ในประเทศไทย					
2. ท่านพยายามหลีกเลี่ยงการพูดคุยกับชาวต่างชาติหากทำได้					
3. ถ้ามีนักเรียนต่างชาติที่มหาวิทยาลัย ท่านก็จะพูดคุยด้วย					
4. ท่านไม่รังเกียจที่จะอยู่อาศัยร่วมกับนักเรียนต่างชาติในห้องหรืออพาร์ทเมนต์เดียวกัน					
5. ท่านอยากมีส่วนร่วมในกิจกรรมอาสาสมัครเพื่อช่วยเหลือชาวต่างชาติซึ่งอยู่อาศัยในเขตชุมชนโดยรอบ					
6. ท่านจะรู้สึกไม่สะดวกใจหากมีชาวต่างชาติย้ายมาอยู่ข้างห้องข้างบ้าน/					
7. ท่านชอบอยู่อาศัยในบ้านเกิดของท่าน					
8. ท่านอยากไปทำงานต่างประเทศ					
9. ท่านสนใจอาชีพที่มีการติดต่อกับชาวต่างประเทศ					
10. ท่านไม่คิดว่าข่าวสารต่างประเทศมีความเกี่ยวข้องกับชีวิตประจำวันของท่าน					
11. ท่านอยากหลีกเลี่ยงงานที่ส่งท่านไปต่างประเทศบ่อยๆ					
12. ท่านอยากทำงานในองค์กรนานาชาติ อาทิเช่น ยูเอ็น					
13. ท่านอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์และดูข่าวสารต่างประเทศอยู่เสมอ					
14. ท่านพูดถึงเหตุการณ์หรือเรื่องราวในต่างประเทศกับครอบครัวและเพื่อนๆ เป็นประจำ					
15. ท่านมีความสนใจในเรื่องราวต่างประเทศอย่างมาก					
16. ท่านไม่ค่อยสนใจข่าวต่างประเทศ					
17. ท่านอยากแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นกับผู้คนที่มาจากประเทศต่างๆ ทั่วโลก					
18. ท่านมีเรื่องราวที่อยากให้คนในโลกได้รับรู้					
19. ท่านมีความเห็นเกี่ยวกับประเด็นสากล เช่น สิ่งแวดล้อม					
20. ท่านไม่มีความเห็นที่ชัดเจนเกี่ยวกับประเด็นสากล					

ส่วนที่ 6: ข้อเสนอแนะ

หากท่านมีข้อเสนอแนะใดๆ

เกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถามนี้หรือต้องการเพิ่มเติมในส่วนของประสบการณ์ในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศของ ท่านเพิ่มเติม กรุณาพิมพ์เพิ่มเติม

ส่วนที่ 7: ข้อมูลสำหรับติดต่อกลับ

หากท่านยินดีให้ความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติมในกรณีที่มีข้อสงสัย กรุณาให้ข้อมูลติดต่อกลับ

อีเมล _____

เบอร์โทรศัพท์ _____

ขอขอบคุณทุกท่านที่ให้ความร่วมมือเป็นอย่างดี

APPENDIX C: Topics of Interviews and Interview Questions

Students' language profile

1. Language History
2. Language Choice
3. Language Dominance
4. Language Attitudes

Interview questions

1. How many languages do you study? How long have you studied each language?
2. Why do you decide to study the particular language(s)?
3. Do friends and family affect your decision to study that language(s)?
4. What do you feel about each language?
5. Do you have any difficulties in studying foreign languages? Is it the same for every foreign language that you have been studied?
6. Do you feel anxious in classroom or when using foreign language outside class?
Do you equally feel anxious for all foreign language you know?
7. Do you think teaching methods are the same in different FL classroom?
8. Is the learning environment of FL classes similar to one another, in case of English and other L3s?
9. Have you ever felt bored or demotivated to learn FLs?
10. What language do you think can help you achieve your future goal?
11. What language do you think will be useful to communicate internationally?
12. Do you think knowing only English is enough?

searcher:
Pitchayapa Siridetkoon
Phone: +44(0)7586036650
Email: pitchyong@gmail.com

supervisor:
Professor Jean-Marc Dewaele
Email: j.dewaele@bbk.ac.uk

Department of Applied Linguistics and
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BIRKBECK
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Malet Street,
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020 7631 6000

APPENDIX D: Information Sheet

Title of Study: Motivation, Anxiety and International Posture of Multiple Language Learners in Thailand

Name of researcher: Pitchayapa Siridetkoon

The study is being done as part of my PhD degree in the Department of Applied Linguistics and Communication, Birkbeck, University of London. The study has received ethical approval.

This study wants to explore investigate relationships between motivation, anxiety, international posture and other related factors of multiple language learners in Thailand

If you agree to participate you will agree to complete an online questionnaire sent to you via the university registration system.

A code will be attached to your data so it remains totally anonymous.

The study is supervised by Professor Jean-Marc Dewaele who may be contacted at the above email.

Researcher:

Miss Pitchayapa Siridetkoon

Phone: +44(0)7586036650

Email: pitchyong@gmail.com

APPENDIX E: Letter to Naresuan University International College**Supervisor:**

Professor Jean-Marc Dewaele

Email: j.dewaele@bbk.ac.uk

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ประสานงานกับอาจารย์ผู้สอน

เรียน ผู้อำนวยการวิทยาลัยนานาชาติ

ด้วย ข้าพเจ้า นางสาวพิชญภา สิริเดชกุล

พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยนเรศวรสายวิชาการ ตำแหน่ง อาจารย์ สังกัด ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ
คณะมนุษยศาสตร์ ได้รับอนุมัติให้ลาศึกษาต่อในระดับปริญญาเอก หลักสูตร TESOL ณ
Birkbeck College, University of London เริ่มศึกษาต่อเมื่อวันที่ 24 กันยายน พ.ศ. 2553 .ศ.ถึงวันที่
22 กันยายน พ.ศ. 2557 รวมระยะเวลาทั้งสิ้น 3 ปี บัดนี้ ข้าพเจ้า

ได้ผ่านการสอบหัวข้อวิทยานิพนธ์ในหัวข้อ "Motivation, Anxiety and International Posture of
Multiple Language Learners in Thailand"

และได้ผ่านการอนุมัติหัวข้อและจรรยาบรรณการวิจัยเป็นที่เรียบร้อยแล้ว

เพื่อทำการศึกษาข้อมูลในเบื้องต้น

จึงขอความอนุเคราะห์รายชื่อและอีเมลของอาจารย์ผู้สอนวิทยาลัยนานาชาติเพื่อประสานงานในการ
เก็บข้อมูลต่อไป

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณา

(นางสาวพิชญภา สิริเดชกุล)

อาจารย์ประจำภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

APPENDIX F: Letter to Teachers at NUIC

Letter to teachers at NUIC

Dear xxx,

I'm Pitchayapa Siridetkoon, a lecturer in English department, faculty of Humanities, Naresuan University. Now I'm studying in a PhD program on TESOL at Birkbeck College, University of London. I'm doing a research on the topic of "Motivation, anxiety and international posture of multiple language learners in Thailand" and would like to collect some data from students at NUIC.

I've sent a letter to the director of NUIC asking for permission to contact lecturers and distribute an online questionnaire to NUIC students via the registration system. I'm interested in students in your classes and would like to ask for your kind help to send the link to the students via www.reg.nu.ac.th. I know that the course has already finished but I just hope that as long as the final grades haven't been done, you can still get in touch with them through the message. All I want is the message to reach them. The intended participants are those who study in Human Resource Management, Tourism Management and English for Business. If you teach students who study in one of these major, please send the following message to them.

Please complete the questionnaire about your experience in learning FLs by 30 April 2013. This study is a part of research to improve FL learning classroom. You can find the questionnaire in the link below. Thank you very much.

ขอความกรุณานิสิตตอบแบบสอบถามเรื่องประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้ภาษาต่างประเทศของ นิสิตเอง
เพื่อประกอบการทำวิจัยเพื่อพัฒนาการเรียนการสอนภาษาต่างประเทศ ส่งภายในวันที่ **30 เมษายน 2556**ค่ะ

นิสิตสามารถคลิกเข้าไปทำแบบสอบถามได้ตามลิงค์ต่อไปนี้ค่ะ

<http://yong.vcs.shogunvps.com/>

ขอบคุณค่ะ

Thank you very much for your time and help.

Regards,

Pitchayapa Siridetkoon

APPENDIX I: Consent Form

Title of Study: Motivation, Anxiety and International Posture of Multiple Language Learners in Thailand

Pitchayapa Siridetkoon

I have been informed about the nature of this study and willingly consent to take part in it.

I understand that the content of the interview will be kept confidential.

I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

I am over 16 years of age.

Name

Signed _____

Date _____

There should be two signed copies, one for participant, one for researcher.